THE

BRITISH CRITIC,

For NOVEMBER, 1803.

" Neminem laceſſivi; nullius honeſti nomen allatravi; perpaucos doctorum virorum errores, cùm extorquebat neceſſitas, obiter caſtigavi; multos diſſimulavi." SCALIGER.

We have inſulted no man; we have attacked no honeſt man's reputation; a few errors of learned men we have thought it neceſſary to remark as we went on, but many we have paſſed in ſilence.

ART. I. *An Hiſtorical Review of the State of Ireland, from the Invaſion of that Country under Henry II. to its Union with Great Britain on the 1ſt of January*, 1801. *In Two Volumes. By Francis Plowden, Eſq.* 4to. 1003 and 1480 pp. 4l. 4s. Egerton. 1803.

THIS ponderous publication is ſo evidently written to ſerve the intereſts of a party, ſo calculated to miſlead the people of England, and to give them erroneous ideas of the various Engliſh adminiſtrations, which during ſix centuries have governed Ireland, and of the cauſes of the conſtant diviſions and diſtractions of that kingdom, that to ſuffer it to remain without notice or animadverſion, were in ſome meaſure to ſanction its miſrepreſentations, and to give implied authority to a work, replete with hiſtorical miſrepreſentations, crowded with undeſerved panegyrics upon one ſet of individuals, and with the moſt unfounded calumnies againſt the living and the dead of another.

Mr. Plowden has thought proper to dignify his book, with the title of "an Hiſtorical Review of the State of Ireland;" while it is in fact nothing more than an intemperate and highly impolitic party-pamphlet, differing only in bulk and price from thoſe caſual publications, which attract notice for a ſhort time, and then ſink into eternal oblivion.

Arduous indeed are the labours, and difficult is the taſk, of a faithful and impartial hiſtorian! The writer who undertakes to give an hiſtory of any particular kingdom, ought previouſly to examine with a cool and deliberate reſearch all the former annaliſts and hiſtorians of different parties, as well as the publications of the day. He ought to poſſeſs a diſcriminating mind, eager in its inquiry after truth. He ſhould be candid, cautious, and temperate. It is his duty to inveſtigate facts minutely, to hazard conjectures with diffidence, and to receive the recriminations of heated parties with diſtruſt. He ſhould be accurate in his ſtatements, candid in his narration of events, and ſomewhat impartial in his reaſonings upon them. But, above all, he ſhould not ſuffer himſelf to be guided by prejudice, and influenced by the zeal of religious bigotry. Such is the faint outline of the duty, ſuch a few of the indiſpenſable qualifications, of an hiſtorian.

What claim, therefore, can that writer have even to the character of an accurate compiler, much leſs of a faithful hiſtorian, who, in his account of the early tranſactions of Iriſh hiſtory, quotes, and almoſt ſolely relies upon, a few obſcure * writers of one party; and who, in order to eſtabliſh their authenticity, makes the novel and ridiculous attempt, to diſcredit all thoſe former † hiſtorians of Ireland, whoſe works are in the moſt repute, and whoſe account of the tranſactions of the times, have been always moſt relied upon?

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* O'Flaherty, O'Halloran, Keating, Mr. Joſiah Lynch, a very learned perſon according to Mr. Plowden: Mr. Pinkerton, Earl of Caſtlehaven, who writes in the teeth of ſome of Mr. Plowden's theories, ſee note to p. 13. Saints Jerome, Ambroſe, Auguſtine, &c. &c. Father Taylor, Abbé Geoghegan, and the "Iriſh annaliſts," are his greateſt authorities for his ſtatements of the early part of Iriſh hiſtory, where he does not condeſcend to tranſcribe from Doctor Leland.

† i. e. Cambrenſis, Camden, Sir John Davis, Temple, Spenſer, Borlaſe, Carte, Lord Clarendon, Leland, &c. and the other authentic hiſtorians: where it ſuits Mr. Plowden's purpoſe, he relies upon Dr. Leland; where it does not, he diſcredits, or does not quote him; he is equally candid with Sir John Davis, and others.

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What opinion are we to form of the prudence of this gentleman, who has thought proper to repreſent the conduct of the Engliſh Governments to that country, as one uniform and continued ſyſtem of oppreſſion and cruelty; who loads with unqualified cenſure and abuſe every adminiſtration which has ever governed Ireland; and who deſcribes all the former Lords, Juſtices, and Viceroys (with the exception only of the Marquis Cornwallis) as knaves or fools, tyrants or hypocrites?

What ſhall we think of the candour of him, who criminates as unjuſtifiable, wanton, and cruel, thoſe meaſures, which one party in Ireland was obliged to adopt for its ſafety, whilſt he palliates, if not juſtifies, the inſurrections and atrocities of the other party, and even goes ſuch lengths as to ſtyle the moſt horrid of their rebellions, a conſcientious adherence to their allegiance, and an unanſwerable proof of their loyalty*!

What pretenſions can that man have to moderation or diſcretion, who vilifies almoſt indiſcriminately the characters of ſo many illuſtrious men of former times, and who caſts the moſt unfounded aſperſions upon ſome of the moſt reſpectable and exalted individuals of the preſent? What claim can the author have to our confidence, who, through the whole courſe of his early hiſtory, ſo ſtudiouſly conceals, and boldly denies, the ſavage exceſſes of the rebellious natives of Ireland, that he may pathetically deſcribe and lament their ſufferings; at the ſame time that he depicts in ſuch falſe colours the neceſſary exertions of power, the indiſpenſable meaſures of ſelf-preſervation?

What reliance can we place upon the accuracy of the hiſtorian, who, in his account of a † recent and memorable event, gives the exaggerated accuſations and ſtatements of ſubjects in rebellion againſt the ſtate, as correct, whilſt he confidently denies the truth of official documents, and the accuracy of parliamentary reports‡? And, laſtly, can we without a ſmile demand, what pretenſions Mr. Plowden can have to impartiality, who, throughout every line of his work, evidently appears the advocate and apologiſt of the Catholic, and the enemy and accuſer of the Proteſtant party in Ireland; who has not only magnified the ſeverities and exceſſes committed

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* See *paſſim*, his account of the Rebellion and Iriſh Maſſacre of 1641.

† The rebellion of 1798.

‡ Arthur O'Connor's letter to Lord Caſtlereagh is relied upon by Mr. Plowden, while the "Report of the Secret Committee of Parliament" is diſcredited by him! the Official Bulletins, &c. &c. are treated with equal reſpect!

by the loyaliſts and their anceſtors during violent and atrocious rebellions (exceſſes perhaps inſeparable from all civil wars) but has charged the preſent generation with enormities of which they are incapable, and the foul imputation of which they repel with ſcorn: enormities which were committed by the inſurgents, and which are unexampled in the hiſtory of any countries, except Catholic Ireland and Republican France!

Though Mr. Plowden therefore may be eſteemed (as no doubt he is) by one claſs of individuals, a very daring and zealous partiſan; we truſt he will never be conſidered by the public in either country, as a faithful or impartial hiſtorian of Ireland.

Very general is the ignorance which even at this day prevails in England, of the true ſtate of that country. Ireland is ſcarcely known but by its factions and rebellions. Active have been the exertions, and not altogether unſucceſsful the induſtry, of the rebel-party, their abettors, and palliators, to deceive the people of England, by repreſenting as unneceſſary and unjuſt, thoſe meaſures which the machinations of treaſon rendered indiſpenſable, in order thus to fix the ſtigma of provocation upon the Government and the Proteſtant gentry of Ireland.

The Britiſh nation, ignorant of the ſpirit of bigotry, the hoſtile prejudices, and the political treachery of the lower, and not only the lower orders of Iriſh Catholics, perplexed and alarmed by the conſtant diſcontents and diſturbances in Ireland, and unacquainted with the peculiar difficulties with which the Iriſh governments have always to ſtruggle, are but too apt in conſequence to be perſuaded, that the uniform reſiſtance to the laws, and the rebellions of that country, are produced by mal-adminiſtration, or provoked by the oppreſſion of the higher orders of ſociety. Hence it is, that various communications, written by the diſaffected party in Ireland, and containing the moſt glaring falſehoods, have received a ready inſertion in the periodical, and particularly in the provincial, prints in England. Theſe publications, though deſpiſed in one country, as the ebullitions of diſappointed treaſon, have been received in the other as truths, and have greatly influenced public opinion in Great Britain; which was indeed the very object for which they were fabricated and publiſhed.

Sir Richard Muſgrave's Hiſtory of the Iriſh Rebellion of 1798 at length, in ſome meaſure, opened the eyes of the Britiſh nation. His minute detail of the enormities committed *before*, as well as during its progreſs, fortified as it is by ſuch an irreſiſtible body of evidence upon oath, and authenticated by the teſtimony

teſtimony of thoſe officers and gentlemen who were eye-witneſſes of many of the horrid tranſactions, has at laſt given the people of England more juſt conceptions of the deſigns and conduct of the Iriſh rebels; and the vain, but malicious efforts which have been made by the diſaffected party to diſcredit Sir Richard Muſgrave's work, have more fully eſtabliſhed its authenticity in the opinion of the more eſtimable part of the Iriſh community.

The loyaliſts of Ireland, as generous as they are brave, upon the peace with France ſheathed their ſwords; and, though they could not forget, had forgiven the injuries which they had received from their Catholic brethren; and harmony and confidence were, in a great meaſure, reſtored in that unfortunate country. At ſuch an unpropitious moment, another Catholic champion imprudently ſtands forth, and throws down the gauntlet of religious and political controverſy.

In our ſtrictures upon his publication, which is conſidered, by a great part of the Iriſh, as a libel upon the loyalty of Ireland, we ſhall avoid caſting any perſonal reflections upon the writer, however authorized we might feel ourſelves, by his example, to purſue a different line of conduct. His object in publiſhing ſuch a work, at ſuch a time, is beſt known to himſelf. Whatever may have been the motives, we feel it our duty to endeavour to counteract the miſchief that may ariſe from the publication, ſhould its ſtatements remain uncontradicted. We do not therefore attack Mr. Plowden, but his book, which he has confidently ſubmitted to the public, with his name and *his portrait* affixed to it. He has ſent it into the world, "with all its imperfections on its head;" and before the tribunal of public opinion we ſhall very freely and boldly arraign it.

The work is dedicated to the Prince of Wales. This Dedication concludes without any of the uſual ceremonies of reſpect to ſo exalted a perſonage. The writer plainly intimates to his Royal Highneſs, that to his reign*, Ireland, i. e. the Catholic part of it, eagerly looks forward for the removal of

* In a pamphlet publiſhed in Dublin, in Auguſt, 1803, entitled "An Iriſh Catholic's Advice to his Brethren, how to eſtimate their preſent Condition; and to repel Civil Wars, Slavery, and Invaſion; by Denys Scully, Eſq. Barriſter at Law," is the following paragraph. —"We (the Catholics) ſee an enlightened Prince, beckoning us to the ſtandard of *genuine* loyalty, and drawing leſſons of future policy from our patron, the gallant and patriotic Moira." P. 99.

thoſe political reſtraints which only affect a very few of the upper claſs of that perſuaſion*.

The Introductory Chapter of this work, the writer profeſſes to be a review of the ſtate of Ireland previous to its invaſion or conqueſt in the reign of Henry II. and he declares his object to be, "to draw the attention of his reader to ſuch prominent events as have, in their time, order, and proportion, remotely and proximately led to an incorporate union of Great Britain with Ireland; which is the primary object of this publication." For this purpoſe, *no doubt*, it was, that ſo early as in his fifth page, he draws the attention of his reader to the Letter of Colonel Littlehales†, relative to Sir Richard Muſgrave's Dedication to the Marquis Cornwallis, of his highly eſteemed and accurate Hiſtory of the Rebellion of 1798; wherein the Colonel expreſſes his Excellency's "wiſh, that in any future edition, the permiſſion to dedicate it to him may be omitted;" "becauſe the nature and contents of the work tend ſo ſtrongly to revive the dreadful animoſities which have ſo long diſtracted that country, and which it is the duty of every good ſubject to compoſe‡."

Now, as Sir Richard Muſgrave's work does not contain any account of the early hiſtory of Ireland, but is ſolely confined to tracing the origin and progreſs of a late ſavage rebellion, it appears to our comprehenſion a little *out of order*, to attempt to diſcredit it *in limine:* if the object be to injure its reputation with thoſe who are beſt acquainted with *modern* Iriſh hiſtory, we apprehend it will be very unſucceſsful; or, if this Letter has been noticed in this part of the work through *inadvertence*, it is only one proof, among many others in this compoſition, of a total want of proper claſſification and chronological arrangement.

Mr. Plowden's character of the temper and genius of the old native Iriſh, as well as thoſe deſcriptions of that people

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* An Iriſh wit, who has anſwered Mr. Scully's work, has obſerved, that "if an epitome of the above ſentiments were rendered into French, it muſt be confeſſed that *Vive le Roi!* would not be the tranſlation."

† See note to p. 5, vol. i. Hiſtorical Review.

‡ This accuſation certainly applies with much more ſtrength to the work before us than to Sir Richard Muſgrave's, which attacks the Catholic *rebels* of his time only. This work attacks every Engliſh adminiſtration, as well as the Proteſtants of Ireland and their anceſtors, from the earlieſt period of Iriſh hiſtory, down to the year of the Union. If, therefore, we might venture to reckon upon conſequences, we ſhould augur ſomething about the future fate of Mr. P.'s Dedication.

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which he quotes from Sir John Davis and Dr. Leland, are, alas! but too accurate*.

"Nor have (anglicè has) the wideſt variety of changes in the political ſyſtem of government altered or ſubdued, much leſs wholly extinguiſhed, the national genius, ſpirit, and character"

of their deſcendants. The ſame† "ardent reſentments, deſperate and vindictive outrages (ſtill) abound in their annals‡." "The miniſters of their religion are accounted more than human§." "Private injuries are avenged by force, and inſolent ambitious chieftains ſtill recur to arms." This propenſity ſtill exiſts in all its force, with only one ſtriking difference; that in early times, they eagerly flocked to the ſtandard of ſome prince or chieftain; of late years, any deſperate adventurer, a lawyer, a bricklayer, or a carpenter, calls his blood-thirſty followers to arms‖.

We admit alſo, in a great meaſure, the extent of Mr. Plowden's obſervation,

"that more family pride is retained by the Iriſh, even in extreme indigence, than by any other nation; and it is generally attended with a conviction of ſome right to large poſſeſſions; and ſeldom exiſts without ſome hereditary tincture of contempt for thoſe, whoſe lineage they think leſs ancient and noble than their own, although at the ſame time no nation *attach* more conſequence to property ¶."

The exiſtence of this pride of anceſtry we do not deny; but Mr. Plowden's foundation for it we ſhall hereafter diſprove. That this pride is "generally attended with a conviction of ſome right to large poſſeſſions," is unfortunately as deſcriptive of the preſent as of the former race of the native Iriſh: and until very lately, a regular liſt of the names of the ancient proprietors of lands, and of the various hands through which they have paſſed, was kept in one of the Roman Ca-

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* Page 3. † Page 5. ‡ Ibid.

§ That *hero*, Father Murphy, at the battle of Arklow (1798) where he was the General, perſuaded his troops that he was invulnerable, and could catch the heretic bullets, as they flew, in his hand. Under this impreſſion, they fought deſperately until he was killed, when they all fled.

‖ In 1798, Counſellors Emmet, Sampſon, &c. &c. and in 1803, Quigly, Howel, M'Intoſh, and other mechanics.

¶ Page 6. The Iriſh Proteſtant gentry complain, that now, A. D. 1803, the lower orders pay no reſpect to property. In the country, even the cuſtom of ſaluting with the hat a gentleman as he paſſes is almoſt wholly diſcontinued.

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tholic chapels in the City of Dublin*: and a reſumption of ancient poſſeſſions forfeited by treaſon and rebellions was *formerly* a very favourite expectation among one claſs of individuals in that country: even ſo lately as the year 1798, an *equitable* diviſion of lands was the hope held out by the chief conſpirators to the lower orders, which they fondly expected would have been realized; and which never would have been held out to them, if it were not a very general and exiſting expectation. Mr. Plowden indeed aſſerts, that

"This general ſpecies of *gregarian*† reſumption, grafted upon the collective claims of ſepts or clans to certain diſtricts, will upon cloſe inſpection and impartial inveſtigation, be found to refer to the old tenures of *Tanniſtry* and *Gavelkind*, and by no means to the laws of England, which have for centuries regulated the deſcent of lands in Ireland, otherwiſe the reſumption would be confined to the individuals, upon whom the law would in the ſuppoſed caſes of reſumption caſt the inheritance, either by primogeniture or by ſome other mode of deſcent. Now the only cry for reſumption is ever ſuppoſed to ariſe from that *caſt of the natives*, who have retained that national ſpirit, with the deluſive claims of royalty and domain, which could *alone*‡ be realized by the redintegration of the old Brehon inſtitutions." P. 12.

That an Engliſh lawyer ſhould be ſo ignorant of the ſtate of that country, of which he profeſſes to give an hiſtorical review, as to compoſe and publiſh ſo ridiculous a paragraph, muſt certainly excite among his brethren of the Iriſh bar, other emotions beſide thoſe of ſurpriſe! Surely a gentleman who has thrice § viſited Ireland ſo lately, might have learned, that no ſuch "caſt of natives" as he deſcribes, now exiſts: did this writer ſuppoſe, that Mr. Arthur O'Connor (whom we believe to be deſcended from a King of Connaught of that name) had in that province a large clan of "that caſt who retained thoſe deluſive claims of royalty and domain," and whom he had undertaken to gratify by "reſumption," and "the redintegration of the old Brehon inſtitutions"? Mr. A. O'Connor did certainly declare to a friend of ours, who met him on the continent immediately after the peace, "that he had framed one of the moſt admirable conſtitutions for Ireland that were ever

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* In the chapel of Cook-Street, and as it *is now ſaid* to have been removed to the Royal College of Maynooth; perhaps it may be ſtill continued from motives of *curioſity or ſcience!*

† Qu. Does not the author mean *Agrarian?* We have no ſuch word as *gregarian*, though there is *gregarious*. *Rev.*

‡ Could not they be alſo realized by a revolution, and a ſeparation from England? The Iriſh Rebels think they could.

§ Page 5.

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compoſed, and which muſt have pleaſed all parties;" but as our friend had neither inclination or ability to underſtand its merits, he has not been able to detail the particulars of this maſterpiece; and therefore we are ſtill ignorant, whether "reſumption" or "redintegration" formed any part of it. We do indeed *ſuſpect*, that the Iriſh of this day care as little for, and underſtand as little of, "Redintegration" as they did of general emancipation and parliamentary reform. But undoubtedly if "reſumption" was no part of that great legiſlator, Mr. Arthur O'Connor's plan, he would not only have miſerably diſappointed that "caſt of natives" (wherever they are to be found) but the whole body of his followers, to whom ſuch expectations were held out, and who firmly believed that they would, upon the ſucceſs of the revolution, have been ſubſtantially fulfilled. Bold, as moſt of the aſſertions in Mr. Plowden's work are, he does not pretend to deny the exiſtence of this "cry for reſumption," but very ingeniouſly traces it to a claſs of natives, which at preſent no where exiſts, and to the principles of the *Brehon* inſtitutions, and of *Tanniſtry*; of which, not only the maſs of the Iriſh people, but very many of the learned profeſſions, know as little as they do of the doctrines of Confucius.

We ſhall trace it for the information of this author, as well as of his and our *Engliſh* readers, to its true ſource*; to the total ignorance of the lower orders of the Iriſh, and their utter averſion to all legal ſyſtems of reſtraints; to the floating traditions that their anceſtors were diſpoſſeſſed of their lands by Engliſh and Scotch ſettlers; and to their exiſting religious prejudices againſt the preſent Proteſtant poſſeſſors, whether they derive their titles under recent purchaſe, or from ancient deſcent†.

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* The levelling ſyſtem of Jacobiniſm has given new vigour to theſe ancient and rooted prejudices; and the war with France is looked upon as a favourable opportunity for reducing them to practice.

† The following Manifeſto, which on Sunday the 7th of Auguſt, 1803, was paſted upon the doors of the church of St. Werbergs, in Dublin, the pariſh church of the Lord-Lieutenants of Ireland, may not be here ſo much miſplaced, as Colonel Littlehales's Letter to Sir R. Muſgrave ſeems to be in Mr. Plowden's work, p. 5.

"CATHOLIC VERTUE.

"We acknowledge, that there now does exiſt among the people throughout this country, a determination to poſſeſs themſelves of, and to transfer to their poſterity, their ancient rights and properties; namely, the eſtates, lands, and church livings, which the abominable ſcum of England have, from time to time, plundered them of, and

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Nor are we quite ſo ſanguine as Mr. Plowden in our expectations, that the union of the two kingdoms, by the natural *workings* of the Britiſh conſtitution, will go further in three years towards the deſtruction of national prejudice and diſaffection, than a mere communication of laws did in three centuries*!

"The pride of anceſtry has a peculiar effect upon the Iriſh,"—and upon Mr. Plowden. "No nation," ſays this gentleman, "in fact, now upon the face of the globe, can boaſt of ſuch certain and remote antiquity; none can trace inſtances of ſuch early civilization; none poſſeſs ſuch irrefragable proofs of their origin, lineage, and duration of government"†.

In ſupport of this poſition, Mr. Plowden confidently aſſerts, that a colony of Carthaginians, three thouſand years ago, ſettled in Ireland, and peopled that country: and this he very ſatisfactorily proves to his readers, by‡ the famous ſcene in Plautus, which had puzzled all former commentators, but which lately an Iriſh antiquary, Gen. Vallancey, by "a diſlocation of the words and ſyllables," converted into *good Iriſh*. This diſcovery will not be allowed by Engliſh critics to have all the force that Mr. P. attributes to it; and if it had, it would equally include the people ſpeaking Welſh and Erſe, undoubtedly branches from the ſame root with the Iriſh; very ſimilar dialects of the ſame original tongue.

Moreover this "pride of anceſtry" is not excluſively confined to the Iriſh people, but the early annals and traditions

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which are now applied to *heretical purpoſes*, in order to aboliſh Catholic faith; but, let a *wretched government* beware, how they tamper with *the religion of the people*.

Orange divines and their followers* are ripe, and it is high time to ſqueeze them."

To what "caſt of natives" are we to attribute this "cry for reſumption"? And is there any of that "Paganiſm" in it, which in p. 12, Mr. Plowden aſſigns as "the genuine cauſe of theſe national prejudices"? *Rev.*

* Page 17. † Page 6.

‡ In Mungo Park's Travels into Africa, he informs us, that the Africans kneaded up flour into a kind of cake, which they called Kous Kous. We are informed, that the Welſh word for bread is alſo Kous: perhaps, after all, the original Welſh may have been a colony from the interior of Africa; and that a near affinity between their language and the African may be diſcovered by ſome Welſh antiquary, on conſulting the Gloſſary at the end of Park's Travels.

* All Proteſtants are now called, by the lower order of Catholics, Orangemen.

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of all nations are full of ſuch abſurd and popular fictions. The Peruvians derived their origin from the ſun; and the Chineſe antiquaries boaſt, that their empire has exiſted from a period which, according to our calculation, muſt have preceded the creation of the world*! Let us, therefore, rely rather upon the conjectures of David Hume, than upon the aſſertions of Mr. Plowden. That hiſtorian ſays, "as Britain was firſt peopled from Gaul, ſo was Ireland probably from Britain†."

Mr. Plowden's account of "the early civilization" of the Iriſh people, and his ſplendid picture of the Mileſian monarchy, however gratifying to "the pride of anceſtry," are little ſatisfactory to the reſearches of a cool and unbiaſſed underſtanding. When the Engliſh adventurers in the twelfth century firſt landed in Ireland, they found no traces of this early refinement and advanced progreſs in all the elegant arts of life‡. Nay, the circumſtance which led to the Engliſh invaſion, namely, a rape, committed by one King on the wife of another; and the reception which this raviſher met, on his return with his allies, not only from the common people, but, by Mr. Plowden's own account, from the nobles and *the clergy*§, affords no very ſatisfactory proof of morality, much leſs of civilization. Directly contraſted to his accounts, are the ſober ſtatements of Hume, and the deciſive authorities cited in his margin; all ſhowing the barbarous ſtate in which the native Iriſh were found by the firſt adventurers from England.

The laws (if they deſerve ſuch a name) under which the original Iriſh lived; the cuſtom of Tanniſtry, which, upon the death of one individual of a family, put the poſſeſſions, real and perſonal, of the whole ſept, as well as of the deceaſed, into what our lawyers call *hotch-pot*, to be equally divided among all the members of the clan, illegitimate as well as le-

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* Eight thouſand years.

† Vol. i. chap. 9; and Scoti, the ancient name of the Iriſh, approaches *nearer* to Scotz, the ancient name of the Scots, whoſe kingdom was called Scotia, than to Skuthoi Scythians, alias Carthaginians.

‡ See page 15. Mr. Plowden's account of their national aſſemblies, feaſts, tournaments, *their progreſs in heraldry*, &c. &c.

Dr. Leland, in his Preliminary Diſcourſe to his Hiſtory of Ireland, the only work which deſerves ſuch a title, calls ſuch accounts "childiſh fables," "poetical annals," &c.

§ Page 29, chap. 2.

gitimate;

gitimate; and the Brehon inſtitutions, which commuted the crime of murder for a pecuniary fine, called the Eirick, could only ſubſiſt among a very barbarous people; and by their abolition alone could the firſt advances towards civilization be made.

As to the orthodoxy of the Roman Catholic faith of the aboriginal Iriſh*, upon which Mr. Plowden ſo much inſiſts, we muſt once more have recourſe to Hume, to correct this gentleman's miſtakes. "The Iriſh had, by precedent miſſions from Britain, been imperfectly converted to Chriſtianity; and, what the Pope (Adrian III.) regarded as the ſureſt mark of their imperfect converſion, they followed the doctrines of their firſt teachers, and had never acknowledged any ſubjection to the ſee of Rome†." Accordingly, A. D. 1156, Adrian III. iſſued, in favour of Henry II. a bull, in which he exhorts that prince to invade Ireland, "in order to extirpate the vice and wickedneſs of the natives, and oblige them to pay yearly, from every houſe, a penny to the ſee of Rome."

On the whole, therefore, we feel warranted in aſſerting, in contradiction to Mr. Plowden, that the native Iriſh were indebted, for the rudiments of civilization and *religion*, to their Engliſh invaders.

We ſhall not ſtay to make any remarks upon the account copied from Sir J. Davis, of the excellent ports and havens and fiſheries of Ireland, and "of the minds and bodies of people endued with extraordinary ability of nature‡," or upon thoſe aſſertions made by Mr. Plowden himſelf, "of the long infelicity of Ireland ſince it has been dependent on, or con-

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* Mr. P. in his learned note to page 19, inſiſts, that the faith preached by St. Patrick is that now denominated "the Roman Catholic faith." Does he alſo mean, that the tenets are the ſame? If ſuch a miſſionary as St. Patrick ever exiſted, he muſt have preached a ſyſtem of Chriſtianity more ſimple than that which the labours of artful prieſts and ambitious pontiffs have ſince diſſeminated.

Mr. P. ſeems alſo to entertain with reſpect the popular opinion, that to the prayers of St. Patrick (that baniſher, not of rats, for there is plenty of thoſe vermin in Ireland) it was owing, that vipers, toads, ſnakes, &c. "which formerly abounded," took their departure from the land of ſaints, in whoſe climate we conceive they could never have exiſted on account of its great moiſture. Various patriotic efforts have, ſince St. Patrick's time, been made to introduce them; but they have died in the winter. A Fellow of the Univerſity in Dublin, at the end of the ſeventeenth century, brought over to Ireland a colony of frogs, which have thriven very well, and are now to be found in all parts of that kingdom.

† Hume, vol. i. chap. 9. ‡ Page 3.

nected with, this country." P. 10. "When we conſider," he ſays, "that ſince Ireland has become connected with, or rather ſubjected to, England, it has ceaſed to perform the part of a nation, on the political theatre of the *univerſe* (i. e. the world, *Gallicè,)* we bring our minds with difficulty to believe the accounts of her leading eminence on that theatre, before ſuch connection or ſubjection took place." P. 20. "This ſtate of pre-eminence, which Ireland ſo long enjoyed amidſt the nations of Europe, ſhows to what a degree of conſequence ſhe is capable of riſing, when her native energies and powers are not cramped by internal diviſions, or damped by *foreign* power, oppreſſion, and rigour.*" How ſuch topics of inveſtigation can conſolidate the connection of the two countries, or conciliate the Iriſh political theoriſts to the Union, "the object of Mr. Plowden's publication," is beyond our capacity to diſcover. To our plain judgment it appears, that if any inference is drawn from theſe paragraphs, it may be one calculated to excite ideas of ſeparation; and that the conſequences might be, "to ſtimulate that people to emulate their priſtine glory." P. 22.

It were endleſs as well as diſguſting to follow this work through its details of the early petty broils of a barbarous province; the incidents of which, compiled from a ſelection of the Iriſh monkiſh annaliſts (a claſs of writers little qualified to view the ſubject with an impartial eye) are therein recorded with a moſt fatiguing minuteneſs.

A handful of Engliſh, or rather Welſh troops, amounting to the number of thirty Knights, ſixty men in armour, and three hundred archers†, commanded by an adventurer of the name

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* Page 22. And all this is addreſſed to a nation which Mr. P. acknowledges to be "Credulitate levis, gloriæ avida, contumeliæ et injuriæ impatiens, et ut inquit ille (Camden) in omnes actus vehementiſſima." That poor enthuſiaſt, Robert Emmet, called upon his countrymen to take their ſtation among nations; and gave, in his proclamation, a much more feeble outline than this work of the grievances of ſix hundred years; but the Iriſh who had any ſenſe or reflection laughed at the compoſition.

Let us, however, once for all, be underſtood as making no reflection on Mr. Plowden perſonally, or imputing to him deſigns or motives unfairly. Our obſervations are confined to his work, and to the inferences which readers, leſs informed than we happen to be, might draw from it.

† This was their number, according to Leland. Mr. Plowden, at a *rough gueſs*, ſays, that with their allies they were three thouſand men. We ſhall have many opportunities, during the courſe of theſe ſtrictures,

name of Fitz-Stephens, came over as auxiliaries to reſtore the exiled petty prince Dermod; and ſhared the good fortune of moſt allies, by becoming maſters of the country. That this ſmall party of ſtrangers, and thoſe who followed them, ſurrounded by ſavage and hoſtile nations, did exerciſe great acts of ſeverity, is highly probable; but to the neceſſity of ſelf-preſervation, and the rude manners of the time, are theſe ſeverities to be imputed, and not to any deliberate ſyſtem of tyranny or cruelty, as this work inſinuates. Wanton barbarity has never been, at any period, the characteriſtic feature of the Engliſh nation; and that a gentleman, poſſeſſing the proud and generous feelings of our countrymen, ſhould give credit to the falſehoods of bigoted Iriſh annaliſts againſt our anceſtors, is as aſtoniſhing as it is prepoſterous. Nay, he himſelf furniſhes an unanſwerable argument againſt his favourite poſition*. "So deeply rooted," ſays he, "in the Iriſh nation was the ſpirit of irritation and reſentment (among themſelves) that no public calamities, oppreſſions, or misfortunes could prevent their chieftains, lords, and petty ſovereigns from continual feuds and wars with each other." Now if the tyranny and cruelties of the Engliſh to the natives were ſo exceſſive and intolerable as he repreſents, is it not probable, that the Iriſh would, for a time at leaſt, have forgotten their mutual reſentments, and united againſt their oppreſſors, the paucity of whoſe numbers muſt have made them an eaſy prey to an enraged and inſulted people? But, on the contrary, we find it to be a conſtant complaint with the early Engliſh rulers, that their ſettlers went over to the Iriſh, were well received by them, and adopted their degenerate manners and cuſtoms. If the oppreſſions which the natives ſuffered from the Engliſh government were ſo intolerable, would theſe coloniſts have ſo willingly ſubjected themſelves to ſuch dreadful ſeverities? If the inhabitants without the pale were put to death without law or juſtice, where was the neceſſity of making a law, to ſubject to the penalties of treaſon thoſe who went over to them; who, by adopting their cuſtoms, became, to all intents and purpoſes, Iriſh? At this day, we treat deſerters *with leſs ceremony*. The preſumption therefore is, that there was a mutual intercourſe of good offices between the ſettlers and

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tures, of correcting his "falſe returns" of the numbers of the forces, &c. &c.

*. And yet this is the people that he ſuppoſes would, "if they had not been damped by *foreign* power," &c. have made ſuch a figure "on the political theatre of the univerſe." P. 39.

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the natives, by which numbers of the former were induced to go over to them, and take a part in their predatory wars; and that therefore the government, for the preſervation of the colony, was obliged, by a ſevere law, to reſtrain the practice.

As to Mr. Plowden's philippic againſt "Coyne and Livery*," the Engliſh cannot boaſt the honour of this invention, it having been a very ancient Iriſh cuſtom, exiſting long before the Engliſh arrived; and which the coloniſts adopted, "becauſe," ſays Leland, "it was pointed out by the urgent occaſion:" and how far it was grievous to a people who had themſelves practiſed it from early times, we are little competent at this day to determine. Of its pernicious effects upon agriculture and induſtry, there can be little doubt; and therefore Sir J. Davis, with great reaſon, reprobated the practice; and the Engliſh government, which, according to Mr. Plowden, threw ſuch obſtacles in the way of Iriſh civilization, after various efforts to repreſs it, at length finally aboliſhed it, by an Act of Parliament which made it felony.

We freely admit that the Engliſh government did keep its enemies, the turbulent Iriſh, in ſubjection; and we ſhall account for their conduct, by Mr. Plowden's own ſtatement of the neceſſity of their meaſures. "The ſubmiſſion of the Iriſh," he admits, "was often abject, always precarious and occaſional; it never laſted longer than whilſt the Engliſh forces commanded a decided ſuperiority." Even now, notwithſtanding Mr. P.'s very ſanguine expectations of the miraculous *triennial* effects of the Union with Great Britain; in our opinion (and we ſpeak on the authority of thoſe who have paſſed more of their time in Ireland, and know the country and people better) whenever the forces in that kingdom ceaſe to command a decided ſuperiority, its ſubmiſſion to the government will be equally occaſional and precarious†.

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* The firſt law in the Iriſh Statute Book is the 3rd of Edward II. A. D. 1310, prohibiting the great Iriſh Lords from taking "priſes, and from lodging and ſojourning againſt the will of the owner, and declaring the cuſtom to be robbery, and to be puniſhed as ſuch." The 28th of Henry VI. made it felony.

Do not the French, in this enlightened century, ſupport their armies at the expence of the countries in which they campaign? And is not this the ſame as coyne and livery?

† We ſpeak not here of the Proteſtants and Preſbyterians of Ireland, who (with the exception only of a few Deiſts, who once were of one or the other of theſe communions) are truly "worthy to be brethren of Britons," and are the chief ſupport of Engliſh connection.

Before

Before we follow Mr. Plowden's work to the reign of Henry VIII.* we muſt detain our readers with a few obſervations upon the tranſactions of a reign, which he has *inadvertently* omitted, but which furniſhes, to our underſtandings, a refutation of his aſſertion of four hundred years of uninterrupted Engliſh oppreſſion.

The reign we allude to is that of Henry VII. and the tranſaction the impoſture of Simnel, who pretended to be the Earl of Warwick, the York-heir to the crown, whom Henry kept in confinement. This conſpiracy againſt him, it is well known, was principally contrived by Margaret, Ducheſs of Burgundy, ſiſter of Edward IV. and her object was, by raiſing an inſurrection, to overthrow the government of Henry; after which, ſhe conceived the impoſtor could be eaſily ſet aſide. Margaret, Simon the prieſt, and the other contrivers, were, however, well aware, that the impoſture could not bear a cloſe inſpection; it was therefore determined to make Ireland the ſcene of action. The pretended Earl of Warwick accordingly landed in Ireland.

"That iſland," ſays the hiſtorian†, "was zealouſly attached to the houſe of York," (on account, no doubt, of its uniform oppreſſion,) "and bore an affectionate regard to the memory of Clarence, Warwick's father, who had been their Lieutenant," (and whoſe adminiſtration was of courſe ſo tyrannical,) not only the chiefs, nobles, clergy, &c. received the impoſtor with open arms, but, adds the hiſtorian, "in proportion as the ſtory diffuſed itſelf among thoſe of the lower orders, it became the object of ſtill greater paſſion and credulity; till the people of Dublin, with one conſent, yielded their allegiance to Simnel, as the true Plantagenet. The whole iſland followed the example of the capital, and not a ſword was any where drawn in Henry's quarrel."

The ſubſequent invaſion of England, by Simnel and his Iriſh adherents, and their defeat at Stoke, are well known. Now, that a people, which had been ſo *cruelly oppreſſed* during the reigns of ſo many princes of the houſe of York, ſhould take ſo very active a part in favour of one, whom they

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* He has paſſed over the reigns of Richard I. John, Henry III. Edwards I. II. III. Richard II. Henrys IV. V. VI. Edwards IV. V. Henry VII. Were there no excellent laws made during theſe reigns to reclaim the Iriſh, to introduce induſtry, trade, civilization? See the Iriſh Statute Book.

† Hume, Henry VII. He quotes as his authority, Pol. Virgil, Bacon, and Dr. Leland, who gives the ſame account of the devotion of the Iriſh to the houſe of York; and who quotes Ware, Hall, Rymer, Bacon, and MSS. in Trinity College, Dublin.

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believed to be a prince of that houſe; and that the independent Iriſh chieftains (of which there were many ſtill very powerful in that country) ſhould have ſome embarked in this cauſe, and the reſt have declined taking advantage of the abſence of ſo many of their oppreſſors, to drive the remainder of their tyrants out of the country, ſeems to us irreconcileable to thoſe feelings of reſentment which, in all ages, the oppreſſed have entertained againſt their oppreſſors.

We follow this work to the reign of Henry VIII. whoſe government in Ireland it repreſents as one continued ſyſtem of inſult and tyranny. We ſhall not become Henry's panegyriſts: that prince had undoubtedly great faults and great vices; ſome allowance ought, however, to be made for the rude manners of the time, and ſome deductions from the numerous accuſations of his Catholic hiſtorians. A monarch who made ſo great an innovation in the religion of his country, and ſo formidable an attack upon the poſſeſſions of its miniſters, muſt of courſe have had very vindictive adverſaries among thoſe who ſtill adhered to the Catholic faith. He happily eſtabliſhed the reformed religion in England; and, however objectionable his object or his means may have been, he was ſupported by his people in that Reformation, which was the parent of our liberties, and the ultimate cauſe of our preſent ſtate of eminence among the nations of the world. Henry attempted to force the Reformation in Ireland, unhappily with leſs ſucceſs; it gained ground, however, by degrees, in ſpite of the violent oppoſition of its implacable enemies; and its followers have ever been, and ſtill continue, the only ſtaunch friends of England in that country.

That a reformation of religion was neceſſary in Ireland at that period, the account given by Mr. Plowden of the Iriſh clergy (which he has copied from Archbiſhop Brown, the truth of whoſe ſtatement he does not pretend to contradict) moſt ſatisfactorily proves.

"He (Brown) repreſented the melancholy ſituation of eccleſiaſtical affairs in Ireland; the extreme ignorance of the clergy, incapable of performing even the common offices, and utter ſtrangers even to the language in which they celebrated their maſs; and the furious zeal of the people, whoſe blind attachment to the ſee of Rome was as determined as the conſtancy of the moſt enlightened martyrs." P. 53.

Such was the ſtate of eccleſiaſtical affairs in that country, when the Iriſh Parliament (or Parliament of the Pale) A. D. 1536, was aſſembled*. That aſſembly, according to Leland,

* Leland, 2 vol. chap. 7.

" left to the diſcretion of their own loyal zeal, proceeded not merely to provide for the internal regulation and local neceſſities of the Pale, but to decide on points equally pertaining to the realm of England and to the land of Ireland (appending and belonging to the Imperial Crown of that realm) and to the unity, peace, and wealth of both lands." This Parliament proceeded to paſs thoſe Acts, which are enumerated in pp. 54 and 55 of Mr. Plowden's work, and *which* are * copied verbatim from Leland's hiſtory, as well as moſt of the pages in this part of the work; namely, the Acts relative to the Reformation; the Marriage of the King and the ſucceſſion to the Crown; relative to the Revenue, and againſt *foſtering*, &c. and to prevent the Engliſh from degenerating; and, amongſt others, alſo the following:

" It was provided that an Engliſh ſchool ſhould be kept in every pariſh, and that ſuch as could not afford to pay for the education of their children at ſuch a ſchool, ſhould be obliged to employ them from the age of ten years in trade and huſbandry.—To prevent waſte of lands, either by the ſuppreſſion of monaſteries or attainder of rebels, commiſſioners were appointed to grant leaſes of all crown lands; and others for pardoning any perſons concerned in the late rebellion, except ſuch as had been attainted by name."——

" Such," obſerves Mr. Plowden in the next paragraph, " were the laws, which this *corrupt and ſervile Parliament* paſſed to gratify the reſentment, luſt, avarice, and ambition of Henry. Ingenuity could not have deviſed a collection of laws, more emphatically calculated to render the Engliſh power, *contemptible and odious* to the Iriſh nation."

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* Almoſt every ſentence of the account of the Reformation in this work (excepting the *comments* which are Mr. Plowden's own) is copied from Leland's Hiſtory of Ireland, and incorporated into this work, without any acknowledgments to the Doctor for the obligation! That it may appear to be his own, he refers, in his notes, to Uſher, Cox, Ware, Leland, Crawford, who are given in the margin of Doctor Leland's work, as his authorities; there is ſcarcely a page of the early part of Iriſh Hiſtory that has not in it whole ſentences ſtolen from Leland. Will his Iriſh readers think this fair play? Leland's Hiſtory, though ſcarce in England, is in every gentleman's library in Ireland.

N. B. The repreſentation of the Maſter of the Rolls, p. 51, is to be found verbatim in Leland, book 3, chap. 6, and was the repreſentation made to Henry of Kildare's adminiſtration, in conſequence of which he was removed, and was not made at the Parliament which enacted the Reformation. The note upon this ſtatement of grievances, as applicable upon modern times, does not deſerve an anſwer; its abſurdity being an antidote to its miſchief.

Gracious heaven! of what materials does the writer ſuppoſe the heads of his readers to be made, when he enumerates theſe laws, ſo wiſe, ſo ſalutary, and ſo clement, as inſtances of the rigour and impolicy of Henry the Eighth's government in Ireland? Might we not here cloſe the book, and inſtead of writing ſtrictures upon ſuch a work, conſign it to the neglect it deſerves?

That the Reformation did not make the ſame rapid ſtrides in Ireland as in England we admit, and at the ſame time deplore. Had it done ſo, thoſe convulſions which have agitated, and thoſe horrors which have ſo long diſgraced it, had never happened. For though the early hoſtility of the Iriſh to the Engliſh and their deſcendants, was until the reign of Henry the Eighth, ſolely on account of their invaſion; yet at that period religious bigotry mixed in the quarrel, in which it has ever ſince moſt obſtinately kept its ground.

That the Reformation made a ſlow progreſs in Ireland is eaſily accounted for. The ſtupid ignorance of the natives, the blind zeal and furious bigotry of the Catholic clergy, threw formidable obſtacles in its way; that it notwithſtanding gained ground, is evident from the alarms which its progreſs gave to the ſee of Rome; which ſent over a private * commiſſion to Cromer (its great opponent) and his aſſociates, enjoining them to perſevere boldly in ſupport of the papal authority, and denouncing the ſevereſt eccleſiaſtical penalties againſt the converts. Theſe efforts were not ineffectual, they prevailed upon the Northern Chieftain † O'Nial, to become the champion for the

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* Leland, p. 171, vol. ii. chap. 7.

† The following Letter was written by the Biſhop of Metz, in the name of the Council of Cardinals to O'Nial, and a Franciſcan Friar diſpatched into Ireland as the bearer of it.

"My ſon O'Nial,——Thoſe and thy fathers were ever faithful to the Mother Church of Rome: his Holineſs Paul, the preſent Pope, and his council of holy fathers, have lately found an ancient prophecy of one St. Lazerianus, an Iriſh Archbiſhop of Caſhel; it ſaith, that the Church of Rome ſhall ſurely fall, when the Catholic faith is once overthrown in Ireland: therefore, for the glory of the Mother Church, the honour of St. Peter, and your own ſecurity, ſuppreſs hereſy, and oppoſe the enemies of his Holineſs. You ſee that when the Roman faith periſheth in Ireland, the See of Rome is fated to utter deſtruction. The council of Cardinals have therefore thought it neceſſary to animate the people of the Holy Iſland in this pious cauſe, being aſſured, that whilſt the Mother Church hath ſons of ſuch worth as you, and thoſe who ſhall unite with you, ſhe ſhall not fall, but prevail for ever in ſome degree at leaſt in Britain. Having thus obeyed the order of

the defence of the Holy Church. He accordingly collected an immenſe army, which after committing dreadful ravages, was defeated at the battle of Bellahoe * by the Lieutenant, Lord Leonard Grey, whoſe principal force conſiſted of the citizens of Dublin and Drogheda, who had embraced the Reformation. After ſome petty engagements, which followed this deciſive victory, Ireland was reſtored to tranquility, and the Reformation gained proſelytes.

That Henry's adminiſtration was far from *odious* to the Iriſh (as Mr. Plowden repreſents) is proved by the following extracts from Leland, at the cloſe of his hiſtory of that monarch's reign. "An unuſual degree of peace ſeemed to have ſpread through the iſland; nor could the practices of Francis the Firſt, when Henry had declared war, and was preparing to invade his kingdom, ſeduce the Iriſh to a revolt. On the other hand, Henry was attended to Calais by a conſiderable body of Iriſh forces, who diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their undaunted ſpirit:"—"and ſo outrageous was the ſpirit of loyalty, that when a ſon of Fitz-Patrick, the Baron of Upper Oſſory, had committed ſome treaſonable offence, he was delivered up to public juſtice by the hands of his own father†." With

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the ſacred council, we recommend your princely perſon to the protection of the holy Trinity, of the bleſſed Virgin, of St. Peter, St. Paul, and all the Hoſt of Heaven. Amen." See Leland, p. 172, vol. ii.

Throughout the courſe of theſe ſtrictures, we mean to conſider the Roman Catholic faith, merely as a political ſyſtem; and as ſuch, to ſhow the influence it has had upon the politics of Ireland. In which point of view only it has been made the ſubject of legal reſtrictions and diſabilities.

* This was the firſt battle in Ireland between the Proteſtants and the Catholics.

† Among the laws paſſed by the Iriſh Parliaments during the reign of Henry VIII. we find in the ſtatute-book the following:—28 Henry VIII. chap. 3, an Act againſt abſentees, veſting two thirds of their Iriſh revenues in the King, for the purpoſes of the ſtate; and ſo early as the ſeventh year of his reign, an Act, that no man ſhould be compelled to anſwer any complaint in England, until the accuſer enter into recognizance in the Chancery of Ireland, to pay coſts and damages if the defendant were acquitted. An Act againſt foreſtalling hides, fells, checkers, fleges, yarn, linen, cloth, wool, &c. &c. which are not to be bought to ſell again, but in open market. An Act, 33 Henry VIII. chap. 2, for regulating wages. An Act for erecting vicarages for reſident clergy, chap. 14. An Act againſt vagrants and vagabonds, chap. 15. An Act for regulating the return of members to ſerve in parliament; by which the knights and burgeſſes muſt be

With all the benefits of Queen Mary's *wiſer policy**, in obliging her ſubjects to relapſe into the ſuperſtitions of the Church of Rome, this circumſtance did not, as Mr. Plowden aſſerts, "give a temporary reſpite to the troubled ſtate of Ireland, as far at leaſt as it depended on England." For this Queen, at her acceſſion to the throne, found that kingdom tranquil. During her ſhort and violent reign it became the ſcene of inteſtine diſtractions; for a detail of which, as well as of the practices of the Catholic clergy, we refer our readers to Leland's Hiſtory, from whom Mr. Plowden has carefully ſelected (and as we obſerved before) copied verbatim *every page*, which that candid writer devotes to a detail of the errors of the Engliſh Government; whilſt he omits *all thoſe*, which flatly diſprove the poſitions he endeavours to eſtabliſh in his Hiſtorical Review. Before we finiſh this firſt part of our ſtrictures upon this work, we ſhall refute the charge (which Mr. Plowden makes againſt the Engliſh Government) of impolicy, in diſcountenancing, as he repreſents, *all* connection between the ſettlers and the natives. Had he been at the pains of reading the ſtatute "againſt marrying with the Iriſh," he would have diſcovered, that it was not ſo extenſive in its operation, as he ſeems to imagine; for this ſtatute only forbade alliances with thoſe Iriſh who were rebels, who neither acknowledged the authority of Government, or obeyed its laws. The words of the enacting part of this ſtatute are, "that noo perſone, ne perſones the Kinge's ſubjectes within this his lande, of what eſtate degree or dignitie or condicion he or they bee, ſhall marie or foſter themſelves &c with any Iriſh perſone or perſones of Iriſhe blood, which be *not the Kinge's*

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be reſidents to entitle them to ſtand the poll. An Act how perſons robbed ſhall be reſtored to their goods, chap. 10, 28th year. An Act 33d year, chap. 4, for lands given by the King; and for creating more nobility, who in the preamble are ſtyled, "the relief and fortification of the realm." An Act, 34th year, chap. 1, for dividing Meath into two counties, and for appointing coroners, juſtices of the peace, clerks of the market, juſtices of *goale* delivery, &c. &c. Theſe are among the Acts of the Parliaments of this reign; which ſurely give us no unfavourable impreſſions of their policy, ſtill leſs ſo of their humanity.

* We muſt not forget to mention that Mary's Catholic Parliament (which according to Mr. P. ſo wonderfully tranquilized Ireland) enacted in the fourth year of the reign of this "immaculate Princeſs," the ſtatute "for the ponyſhement of hereſies." Had this Queen lived a little longer, the citizens of Dublin, as well as thoſe of London, would have had the *bonfires* lighted up in their Smithfield.

true

true ſubjectes;" and it goes on to enact, that if the perſons with whom they intend to intermarry become denizens, and enter into a recognizance, that the party ſo made a denizen, " without fraudy or covine ſhall have a true and unfayned intent of becoming during *his* natural life faithfull, true and obedient to the Kinge's highnes," the marriage may take place; but that if " at any tyme or tymes hereafter *he* doo tranſgreſſe *his* fidelitie and faithe to the Kinge's highnes, uſing *himſelfe* as the *Kinge's rebell*, and proclamacion thereof made by the advyſe of the Kinge's Counſaill, in the ſhire or oppen markettes next adjoyning to ſuch offendour," *he* ſhould be conſidered a traitor, and uſed accordingly* (28 Hen. c. 28). Such are the proviſions of a ſtatute, which Mr. P. repreſents as diſcouraging *all* connexion between the Engliſh and the native Iriſh. This Act certainly prevented an Iriſh rebel from marrying a woman of the colony, unleſs he became a denizen, and adhered to his allegiance: and was it not a very juſtifiable policy, to endeavour to prevent the increaſe of the number of the lawleſs Iriſh, and to encourage the multiplication of obedient ſubjects? If the Iriſh of that day were not to be drawn *from* their barbarous manners and inſtitutions, was it expedient that the riſing generation ſhould be drawn *to* them? The laws therefore againſt alliance, except under certain reſtrictions, were neceſſary to the exiſtence of the colony. " Novitas regni me talia cogit moliri" has been in all ages the cauſe, and the juſtification, of meaſures of much greater ſeverity.

We ſhall here cloſe the firſt part of our ſtrictures upon this work. We have ſhown already what little reliance is to be placed upon its hiſtorical accuracy, and how unfounded are its accuſations againſt the conduct of the Engliſh Governments from the reign of Henry the Second to the Reformation.

The ſecond part of our ſtrictures ſhall commence with Mr. Plowden's account of the reign of Elizabeth, when religious bigotry *procured* the convulſions of Ireland, which at this day it continues *to aid and abet;* and ſhall end with the reign of George the Second, when the Proteſtant parties of both countries having finally triumphed, the hopes of the Catholics became extinct; and Ireland enjoyed a degree of tranquility, to which ſhe has been latterly a total ſtranger.

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* Query? Did this Act prevent a man of the colony from marrying a wild Iriſh woman if he *took a fancy* to her? Or, if he did, would he have been hanged, &c. &c.

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The third part (for we muſt of neceſſity extend our account to three parts) ſhall trace the revival of the hopes, the conceſſions upon conceſſions which have followed, and *their effects upon the tranquility of that country;* and ſhall compriſe that part of Mr. Plowden's work, which commences at the preſent reign, and concludes with the Legiſlative Union of the two Kingdoms.

As this "Hiſtorical Review of the State of Ireland," by Mr. Plowden, has very imprudently provoked inveſtigation, it is alone anſwerable for whatever contention may ariſe from the diſcuſſion.

(To be continued.)

ART. II. *An Eſſay on Abſtinence from Animal Food, as a Moral Duty. By Joſeph Ritſon.* 8vo. 236 pp. Phillips. 1803.

THIS is one of the moſt extraordinary performances that ever fell under our notice. It purports to be a diſſuaſive from the uſe of animal food; and if the author had been influenced by motives of humanity, or indeed by any others to which we could have aſſigned a praiſe-worthy or reaſonable origin, we ſhould have diſmiſſed it, in a few words, as the reverie of a weak mind, abſurdly, but not offenſively employed.

Sorry are we to ſay, that views of a very different nature produced the article under examination. It is miſchievous in its deſign, deteſtable in its conduct, impious, and even daringly atheiſtical, in its principles and avowed deductions. As a work of literature, it is beneath notice; coarſe, inelegant, and ridiculouſly fantaſtical in its diction, and clumſily fabricated out of quotations from a variety of authors, ſelected without common ſenſe, and, if we muſt ſpeak out, without common honeſty.

The book is divided into Chapters; the firſt of which is entitled "of Man." This is *wiſely* made up of extracts from Heſiod, and other ancient poets and hiſtorians, and "proves," to the confuſion of Scripture (as the author conceives) that the world is eternal, as well as man! Beaſts, &c. we all know, "were produced by the mud of the Nile." Here the author is obliged to inſert an obſervation extremely hoſtile to the eternity of the world. "The mud of the Nile," he ſays, "*it is believed*, has, *for ſome time*," probably ſince modern

modern travellers viſited it, "loſt its generative or vivifying qualities." P. 9. However, he ſhortly after rallies, and encouraged by the doctrine of Epicurus, Ocellus Lucanus, and a few others, ventures to pronounce, "that, as it is abſolutely impoſſible to demonſtrate theſe facts, we *muſt*, of neceſſity, be content to embrace the SENSIBLE opinion reported by Diodorus, that mankind was from eternity, and that there never was a time when he firſt began to be"!!! P. 12.

Having thus produced his man, the author proceeds to tell us who and what he is. Man is a monkey, a perfect orang-outang; this is proved in a variety of modes. "The apes correct their young in the manner of *good Chriſtians*," P. 13, *Ergo, &c.* Again, "the monkey ſeems to be of the Preſbyterian or Methodiſt perſuaſion, which he imitates in his *religious* exhortation"! P. 16. This puts the matter out of all doubt. But, ſays the author, with amazing candour, "man, by ſome *ſingular* and *unaccountable accident or event*, has acquired the art of forming articulate ſounds." P. 15. This is unlucky; for monkeys (at leaſt thoſe of Mr. Pidcock's family, with whom we are beſt acquainted) do not ſpeak. Not ſo faſt: "this," continues the author, "is no ſolid objection to the preſent ſyſtem" (of a monkey being a man, or *vice-verſa*) for, as Maſter Nathaniel ſays, *the colluſion holds in the exchange* (of a man being a monkey) "as language is no more natural to man than to many other animals, which actually make uſe of it"! (p. 15) nay, as he continues, "the Negroes ſay of the monkeys, that they can ſpeak if they will, but are afraid to confeſs it, leſt they ſhould be made to work." P. 16. On the authority, therefore, of theſe profound inveſtigations, we may, with the author, conclude ſpeech to be natural to animals, and affirm, "that prejudice and bigotry alone can ſwallow the *abſurdity* of ſpeech or language being the gift of God." P. 31. Upon the whole, the eternity of the world, and of monkeys, is here ſufficiently proved to every *unprejudiced* and *unbigotted* mind!

The ſecond Chapter is ſhort. It is intended to demonſtrate that "animal food is not natural to man," which appears from this irrefragable evidence, that "Diomedes King of Thrace killed by Hercules, fed his mares with the fleſh of miſerable ſtrangers, *cut in pieces for the purpoſe*." This was provident in their maſter, for the poor beaſts had no knives, as may be read in the ſame authentic hiſtory, "which made them ſo fierce and unmanageable, that they were obliged to be kept in ſtalls of braſs and tied up in iron chains"! Beſides this, "the Indian philoſophers (according to old Doctor Moffet, who, from the uſe which is made of his teſtimony, apparently lived

before

before the flood) did never, a great while after the flood, taſte of any ſenſible animal; and though Nimrod, the great hunter, ſlew many beaſts, yet fleſh was even then untaſted of the Babylonians"! P. 51. So that from the horſes of Diomedes eating animal food, and the Babylonians (according to the teſtimony of the antediluvian Doctor Moſſet) not eating it, it evidently appears "not to be natural to man." Q. E. D.

Chapter III. proves "animal food not neceſſary for the purpoſe of ſtrength or corpulency." Indeed, it does more, it *proves* it to be not neceſſary for any thing. "Nature," the author ſays, p. 65, "preſents man with his food already dreſſed," hang up the cooks! "the banana and the bread-fruit" (our amazing author is not aware that the bread-fruit is always roaſted) between the tropics, the evergreen oak, and the cheſtnut-tree, in the temperate zones, and the pine, whoſe kernel is eatable, in the frigid zone." How idle are the fears of ſpeculative politicians reſpecting the ſeizure of the coal-pits by the French! We can now do without them. It ſhould not be concealed, however, that the author hints that we may vary or improve our diet by boiling the cheſnuts; ſo that, after all, people ſhould not be too eager in flinging away their coals. "The Sevennois in France feed on cheſnuts, the *broth* of which is very nouriſhing." P. 81. The writer of this article has been informed, that this *broth* is ſometimes enriched by boiling an egg in it. But cheſnuts, and pine-cones, may not always be at hand: it is ſome comfort therefore to reflect, that the happy period is approaching, when no food of any kind will be neceſſary. "Whether it be poſſible for man, by any mean of temperance, medicine, or *morality*, to ſubſiſt without any—food, ſeems UNCERTAIN; for though the famous elixir vitæ of the alchemiſts, ſo long ſought, has not yet been diſcovered, it is not *at all impoſſible*, that in a more enlightened age,—this invaluable medicine may be one day hit upon, though not, it may be, within a very ſpeedy period." P. 66. Alack! alack! Milton complained that he was born "too late:" we, on the contrary, lament that we were born *too early*, and are not likely to ſhare in the bleſſings of this diſcovery; which we are confident will be made about the time that Mr. Godwin's famous plough walks into the field, and performs its work without aſſiſtance. The period, however, may not be ſo diſtant as the author apprehends; for he has judiciouſly collected anecdotes of many enthuſiaſtic, diſeaſed, and inſane perſons, who have lived for ſeveral days without ſuſtenance of any kind! Amid theſe authentic documents, however, we miſs the caſe of the *Maid of Haerlem*, who lived, as is well known, ſixty days on the ſmell of a roſe;

and

and would have lived until this very hour, had the ſeaſon of roſes fortunately continued.

If we muſt eat however in theſe degenerate days, let us all betake ourſelves to a vegetable diet; "ſeeing its influence is ſo conſiderable and ſo happy, *on beauty* of *perſon*, and *tranquility* of ſoul"! P. 83. This is ſo cloſe an argument, *ad hominem*, that we ſhould have been ſurpriſed if the author had overlooked it. His *beauty of perſon* we leave to the contemplation of the ladies; but his *tranquility of ſoul*, which has led him to maintain a reſtleſs and envenomed warfare with the whole human race, and chiefly with the moſt reſpectable part of it, cannot be too ſtrongly preſſed on the reader's notice, as one of the happy effects flowing from a total abſtinence from animal food!

We ſhall return to the ſubject of this chapter, after noticing a few paſſages illuſtrative of the conſiſtency, and other diſtinguiſhing qualities of this notable philoſopher. In p. 86, we are told, that "the fierce and cruel diſpoſition of the wild Arabs (the Bedouins) is ſuppoſed to proceed from their feeding upon the fleſh of camels." In p. 147, we find that the Arabs, though not without animal food, *ſeldom* eat of it; and, as if this was not enough, we are told that, "content with his milk and his dates, the Bedouin has not deſired fleſh; he has ſhed *no* blood, he has preſerved a *humane* and *ſenſible* heart"! P. 126. The ſame admirable order runs through every part of the book; and nations, juſt as it ſuits the author's purpoſe, are cannibals, fleſh-eaters, or Pythagoreans. "The Peruvians," for example, "were ſuch lovers of human fleſh, that Cieza one day ſaw them devour above a hundred men, women, and children," (p. 145); "at another time they killed and ate at leaſt three hundred Indians," (p. 145); but (p. 190) "they contented themſelves with herbs and roots, and with what the earth produced of itſelf." It is needleſs to quote more of this ineffable nonſenſe*.

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* Yet we muſt be indulged in one inſtance more. "The Birians, a nation about 12 degrees north of the Cape of Good Hope, ſeldom eat meat," &c. P. 187. For this important piece of information, the author quotes *Damberger's* Travels. To produce the authority of an acknowledged impoſtor, in ſupport of a cauſe which has nothing but falſehood on its ſide, is ſo natural, that we ſhould not have noticed it, but for a ſingular proof of *honeſty* in the author. The reference is, "Damberger's Travels, London, Longman and Rees." Now, as it is well known, that his worthy friend, "Miſter Richard Phillips, the publiſher of this compilation," (p. 201) was the firſt man that brought

Our readers have read and trembled at the ferocity of the Eaſt India tiger. We have the pleaſure to inform them, that in conſequence of the vegetable diet of the Marattas, that ferocity is no more. Such is the force of example! "Even the moſt formidable quadrupeds (tigers, leopards, ounces, &c.) *ſeem* to have loſt their natural ferocity in the ſame harmleſs diſpoſitions; and hence the apprehenſions occaſioned by the proximity of ſuch neighbours, no longer diſquiet the minds of the natives." P. 210. This is from a Monſ. de Pages; and thus it is that fools miniſter to the deſigns of ———; but enough, we turn back to p. 83.

"A vegetable regimen prolongs infancy:—I have ſeen an inſtance of it in an Engliſh youth (it is St. Pierre who ſpeaks) of fifteen, who had not the appearance of being ſo much as twelve! He was a moſt intereſting figure, &c. His father, whoſe name was Pigot, told me, that he had brought him up entirely under the Pythagorean ſyſtem; the good effects he had learned by his own experience."

We remember this unfortunate creature well: it was a poor little ſtunted thing, that would eat any thing out of his father's ſight, and whoſe great ambition was to be an Engliſh jockey-boy (he was then ſettled at Geneva) for which his light weight and diminutive ſtature ſeemed to qualify him. As to the Pythagorean his father, of whom the author gives ſome account in a note, he was a weak and wrong-headed man, who ruined himſelf and an ancient family. This humane and enlightened philoſopher was one of the keeneſt ſportſmen at Newmarket; till, having loſt a great deal of money on a race which he was ſure of winning, and therefore boldly ventured on, he left the turf in a pet, ſold his family eſtate at two thirds of its value, and removed with the produce to France, the country of liberty and virtue, which, after his defeat, were no longer to be found here. About 1789, he ſettled near Geneva, where he was the object of conſtant ridicule from his ſingularities. He hired a dozen labourers, at ſix ſhillings a week, to live on vegetables; and the people reported that he had killed two of them with diarrhœas! We have ſeen him (for we have not always been confined to our garrets) ſitting with his bare rump on ſome freſh mould ſtrewed upon his garden wall, by way of invigorating his faculties! When the property of this poor man (near fourſcore thouſand pounds ſterling) was ſeized by

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brought to this country the impudent and ignorant forgery here mentioned, of which he printed and diſperſed a vaſt edition before it was detected; it is a notable ſacrifice he makes to juſtice in ſuppreſſing his name, and introducing that of others, who were the mere dupes of a trick by which the former only profited.

Robeſpierre,

Robeſpierre, whom he always greatly admired, he was alarmed, and took horſe for Paris. Agitation and terror threw him into a violent fever before he reached Lyons, where he died, and all was loſt! So much for the author's ſecond hero. The third is a Mr. "John Williamſon, alias Pythagoras, alias Bramin, alias Hole-John." P. 196. The reader wants no further information to determine that this was ſome crack-brained idiot or half-witted madman. The author triumphantly notices, that he was a great enemy to "prieſts and prieſt-craft, the only names he uſed for the clergy and their function." P. 198. The fourth on the philoſophic liſt is John Oſwald: "he uniformly abſtained from eating animal food; nay, *ſo great was his abhorrence of blood*, that rather than go through a fleſh-market, he would go any diſtance about." P. 199. Would it be credited, that this miſcreant, who is here ſaid to have put on "the mild philoſophic manners of the Brachman," (ibid.) was the moſt ferocious, the moſt blood-thirſty villain that ever diſgraced the human ſhape! During the whole reign of terror in France, he was the active agent of Couthon, Marat, Le Bon, and the reſt of that diabolical crew. Having wallowed in blood at Paris till the ſtream grew ſcanty, he ſolicited to be ſent againſt the brave and loyal Vendeans; there, after innumerable murders, he was at length diſpatched, with his two ſons (tigers like himſelf) in a battle which he loſt on the banks of the Loire. The fifth worthy is no other than "Miſter Richard Phillips, the publiſher of this compilation;" who, however, has been ſo diffident of his friend's publication, as not to advertiſe it in any liſt of books edited by him. Of his hiſtory, we know nothing but from mere report. Let thoſe, who are acquainted with the facts, judge of the value of his example. The ſixth and laſt of the ſect is the compiler himſelf, who ———

We had written thus far, when we were informed that he was no more! How fearful are the ways of heaven! The fool! who, in the pride of his no-knowledge, arraigned the wiſdom of Providence; the worm that, in the conceit of his no-ſtrength, aſpired to pull the Almighty from his throne, ſunk, in the twinkling of an eye, beneath the level of the loweſt and moſt contemptible of the beaſts that periſh! It is ſaid that he was found naked, at midnight, in the court of his inn, with a large claſp-knife in one hand, and a copper kettle in the other, on which he was exerciſing his impotent fury. The humanity of the neighbours conveyed him to a mad-houſe, where, in the courſe of a few hours, he expired in a paroxyſm of frenzy.

It is juſt, as well as charitable, to hope that his opinions were influenced by the imperceptible growth of that malady which

which deſtroyed him: for the reſt, he is now before a righteous tribunal, where we alſo muſt appear; and where the leaſt ſinful of the human race muſt look, no otherwiſe than himſelf, for forgiveneſs to the mercy of a long-ſuffering Judge and Father.

ART. III. *Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year* 1803. *Part I.* 4to. 276 pp. G. and W. Nicol. 1803.

THE contents of this Part of the Tranſactions conſiſts of ten Papers, beſides the Meteorological Journal, which forms an Appendix of 26 pages.

I. *The Bakerian Lecture. Obſervations on the Quantity of Horizontal Refraction; with a Method of meaſuring the Dip at Sea.* By William H. Wollaſton, M. D.

In a former paper preſented to the Royal Society, this author endeavoured to aſcertain, and to explain, the cauſes of horizontal refraction. Since that time, having had it in his power to purſue the ſubject, by means of ſubſequent experiments and obſervations, the reſults of which tend to improve the theory, he ſtates thoſe particulars in the preſent paper.

The variations of horizontal refraction are evidently depending on the changes indicated by the thermometer and the hygrometer;

"Yet," ſays Dr. W. "the law of theſe variations is not altogether ſo ſimple as I had hoped it might be found.

"I ſhall, on the preſent occaſion, firſt relate the facts on which this opinion is founded, and which are in themſelves ſufficiently remarkable, on account of the unexpected quantity of refraction obſervable over a ſhort extent of water; I ſhall, in the next place, ſhow that the exact determination of the concurrent changes of the atmoſphere are of leſs value, and their irregularities of leſs conſequence than I had conceived, as there is a very eaſy method whereby the quantity of dip at ſea may be at any time correctly meaſured; and therefore the end which I ſought by indirect means, may be at once directly attained."

He then, in conformity to this plan, relates his obſervations, which were principally made upon the river Thames; to which he ſubjoins the method of correcting the dip at ſea.

After the ſtatement of the obſervations, he ſays, in page 9,

"From the foregoing obſervations we learn, that the quantity of refraction over the ſurface of water may be very conſiderable, where the land is near enough to influence the temperature of the air. At ſea,

ſea, however, ſo great differences of temperature cannot be expected; and the increaſe of dip cauſed by this variation of horizontal refraction, it is to be preſumed, is not ſo great as in the confined ſource of a river; but, if we conſider that it may alſo be ſubject to an equal diminution from an oppoſite cauſe, and that the horizon may even become apparently elevated, there can be no queſtion that the error in nautical obſervations, ariſing from a ſuppoſition that it is invariably according to the height of the obſerver, ſtands in need of correction."

The method of determining the quantity of dip, conſiſts in taking the ſun's altitude, by means of a ſextant, from two oppoſite points of the horizon.

"By the back obſervation, the whole vertical angle between any two oppoſite points of the horizon may be meaſured at once, either before or after taking an altitude. Half the exceſs of this angle above 180°, ſhould of courſe be the dip required.

"But, if it be doubtful whether the inſtrument is duly adjuſted, a ſecond obſervation becomes neceſſary. The inſtrument muſt be reverſed, and, if the apparent deficiency of the oppoſite angle from 180° be not equal to the exceſs before obtained, the index error may then be corrected accordingly; and, ſince the want of adjuſtment, either of the glaſſes at right angles to the plane of the inſtrument, or of the line of ſight parallel to it, will affect both the larger and ſmaller angle very nearly in an equal degree, the ¼ part of their difference will be extremely near the truth, and the errors ariſing from want of thoſe adjuſtments may with ſafety be neglected."

II. *A chemical Analyſis of ſome Calamines.* By James Smithſon, Eſq.

The uncertainty, which, notwithſtanding ſeveral experiments made by divers perſons, ſtill remained concerning the nature of thoſe ores of zinc, which are commonly called *calamines*, determined Mr. Smithſon to inſtitute an analyſis of the ſame.

The ſpecimens he examined, were the calamine from Bleyberg, the calamine from Somerſetſhire, the calamine from Derbyſhire, and the electrical calamine. The reſult of his experiments ſhows, that 1000 parts of the firſt of thoſe ſpecimens, conſiſt of calx of zinc 714, carbonic acid 135, and water 151. One thouſand parts of the calamine from Somerſetſhire, conſiſt of carbonic acid 352, and calx of zinc 648. One thouſand parts of the calamine from Derbyſhire, conſiſt of carbonic acid 348, and calx of zinc 652. One thouſand parts of the electrical calamine, conſiſt of quartz 250, calx of zinc 683, water 44, and 23 of thoſe parts were loſt in the courſe of the operations. But Mr. S. obſerves, that if the water is only accidental in this calamine, then its ingredients are quartz 261, and calx of zinc 739.

The

The ſtatement of the experiments which determined the above-mentioned reſults, is followed by a variety of very proper obſervations on the peculiar nature of calamines, as well as upon chemiſtry in general.

III. *Experiments on the Quantity of Gaſes abſorbed by Water, at different Temperatures, and under different Preſſures.* By Mr. William Henry.

This very uſeful paper is divided into two ſections, to which are prefixed a few hiſtorical particulars relative to the abſorption of aeriform fluids by water. Among thoſe particulars it is mentioned, that the carbonic acid is the only gas whoſe relation to water has been examined by the induſtry of Cavendiſh, Prieſtley, and others, with particular attention; but that the ſolubility of other gaſes in water had been almoſt entirely overlooked by philoſophers.

The firſt ſection treats of the quantities of gaſes abſorbed by water under the uſual preſſure of the atmoſphere. In order to aſcertain thoſe quantities with ſufficient accuracy, this author employed an apparatus, which he deſcribes in the commencement of the ſection; and the deſcription is illuſtrated by a delineation of the inſtrument on an adjoining plate. He then ſtates the reſults of his experiments, and accompanies the account with uſeful and curious remarks.

The abſorption of carbonic acid by water (and indeed nearly the ſame thing may be obſerved with reſpect to the abſorption of all the other gaſes) is influenced by the temperature of the ingredients, and by the proportional quantities of gas and water, that are preſented to each other; for inſtance, a given quantity of water will abſorb a greater quantity of carbonic acid, when a large, than when a ſmall, volume of the latter is expoſed to it; though in both caſes the quantity of gas expoſed be conſiderably greater than that which the given quantity of water can poſſibly abſorb. In conſequence of the above-mentioned peculiarity, this author expreſſes the quantities of carbonic acid abſorbed by water, by means of a table, conſiſting of ſeven columns, which bear the following titles; namely, numeration of experiments, temperature, meaſures of water, meaſures of gas, quantity abſorbed, reſidue, and quantity abſorbed by 100 inches of water.

From the table it appears, that at the temperature of 55° when 15 meaſures of carbonic acid are expoſed to 10 meaſures of water, 10 only of the former are abſorbed by the latter. But when, at the ſame temperature, 20 meaſures of the gas are expoſed to 20 meaſures of water, then 18 meaſures of the former are abſorbed by the latter.

Similar

Similar experiments with the other gaſes ſhow, that 100 parts of water, at 55° of temperature, abſorb 86 parts of ſulphurated hydrogen gas. At 45° of temperature, the ſame quantity of water takes up 50 of nitrous oxide.

100 cubic inches of water at . . .	60°	abſorb
of nitrous gas	5	inches
oxygenous gas	2,63	
phoſphuretted hydrogen gas	2,14	
gaſeous oxide of carbon . .	2,01	
carburetted hydrogen gas . .	1,40	
azotic gas	1,20	
hydrogen gas	1,08	
atmoſpherical air	1,43	

In the ſecond ſection this author treats of the influence of preſſure in promoting the abſorption of gaſes.

He commences this ſection by deſcribing the apparatus he uſed for the purpoſe, and which is only a ſmall addition to the apparatus deſcribed in the firſt ſection; and, at the ſame time, he points out ſeveral improvements that might be made upon it; after which, he ſays,

"The reſults of a ſeries of at leaſt fifty experiments on carbonic acid, ſulphurated hydrogen gas, nitrous oxide, oxygenous and azotic gaſes, with the above apparatus, eſtabliſh the following general law: that *under equal circumſtances of temperature, water takes up, in all caſes, the ſame volume of condenſed gas as of gas under ordinary preſſure.* But as the ſpaces occupied by every gas are inverſely as the compreſſing force, it follows, *that water takes up, of gas condenſed by one, two, or more additional atmoſpheres, a quantity which, ordinarily compreſſed, would be equal to twice, thrice, &c. the volume abſorbed under the common preſſure of the atmoſphere.* By frequent repetition of the experiments, I obtained reſults differing a little from the general principle above ſtated; but for all practical purpoſes, I apprehend, the law has been announced with ſufficient accuracy."

The following paſſage, which concludes the paper, ſhows the evolution of heat by the condenſation of the air.

"When the denſity of the air was ſuddenly doubled by a column of quickſilver, the mercury in the thermometer, whoſe bulb was ſtill ſurrounded by the condenſed gas, roſe about 1½ degree. On agitating the veſſel, till the water encompaſſed the bulb of the thermometer, an elevation of barely ½ a degree enſued in the temperature of the water. This aſcent would probably have been greater, if the evolved heat had not been carried off by the mercury on which the water floated."

IV. *Experiments and Obſervations on the various Alloys, on the ſpecific Gravity, and on the comparative wear of Gold. Being the Subſtance of a Report made to the Right Honourable the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council, appointed to take*

take into Conſideration the State of the Coins of this Kingdom, and the preſent Eſtabliſhment and Conſtitution of his Majeſty's Mint. By Charles Hatchett, Eſq.

This long and elaborate paper occupies by far the greater part of the book. It begins with a liſt of the committee appointed on the 10th of February, 1798, for the purpoſe, &c. as mentioned in the title. This liſt is immediately followed by the introduction, wherein it is ſtated, that the examination of gold, with reſpect to various alloys, as alſo with reſpect to its ſpecific gravity, wear, &c. which forms the ſubject of the preſent paper, was undertaken by the deſire of the above-mentioned committee, who were pleaſed to requeſt, that H. Cavendiſh, Eſq. and the writer of this paper, would undertake the examination of the neceſſary particulars; which was accordingly done.

"Two queſtions were to be principally decided. 1ſt. Whether very ſoft and ductile gold, or gold made as hard as is compatible with the proceſs of coining, ſuffers the moſt by wear, under the various circumſtances of friction to which coin is ſubjected in the courſe of circulation?

"2dly. Whether coin with a flat, ſmooth, and broad ſurface, wears leſs than coin which has certain protuberant parts raiſed above the ground or general level of the pieces?

"Concerning the firſt queſtion, opinions were various, and the moſt intelligent perſons were uncertain whether ſoft or hard gold was to be preferred; and, in reſpect to the ſecond queſtion, it muſt be obſerved, that although the prevalent opinion was in favour of flat and ſmooth ſurfaces, yet, as the fact had never been fully and ſatisfactorily determined, this opportunity was embraced, in order that every doubt might be removed."

With reſpect to the conduct of the experiments neceſſary for the examination, Mr. Hatchett ſays,

"At the requeſt of Mr. Cavendiſh, I have written the following account; but I ſhould be highly unjuſt and ungrateful to that gentleman, did I not here publicly acknowledge how great a portion truly belongs to him, of any merit which theſe experiments may be found to poſſeſs; for, at all times, I was favoured with his valuable advice; and the machines to produce friction, as well as the dies, were entirely contrived by himſelf. At the ſame time, I wiſh it to be underſtood, that I alone am to be conſidered as reſponſible for any inaccuracies of the experiments."

The paper is divided into three ſections; namely, ſect. 1, on the various alloys of gold; ſect. 2, on the ſpecific gravity of gold when alloyed by various metals; and, ſect. 3, on the comparative wear of gold, when alloyed by various metals.

The firſt ſection deſcribes a very conſiderable number of experiments made by combining gold ſeparately, and in different proportions, with each of the following metallic ſubſtances; namely, arſenic, antimony, zinc, cobalt, nickel, manganeſe, biſmuth, lead, tin, iron, platina, and ſilver.

The reſults of thoſe various combinations; namely, the colour, hardneſs, pliability, and other peculiarities of the maſſes, are diſtinctly annexed to each experiment, to which are occaſionally added (for the ſake of compariſon, or for the purpoſe of removing wrong ideas) the reſults of ſimilar experiments, as deſcribed by divers authors. The above-mentioned account of the experiments is followed by a table, which ſhows the loſs of weight ariſing from the combination of gold with certain metallic ſubſtances; and, concerning which, Mr. H. ſays:

"According to the foregoing table, it appears, that fine gold, gold alloyed with ſilver, gold alloyed with copper, and gold alloyed with tin, did not ſuffer any loſs during the experiment.

"Moreover, that gold alloyed with lead only loſt three grains, chiefly by vitrification.

"That gold alloyed with iron loſt 12 grains, which formed ſcoria.

"That gold alloyed with biſmuth alſo loſt 12 grains, chiefly by vitrification.

"That gold alloyed with antimony loſt the ſame quantity, partly by volatilization, and partly by vitrification.

"That gold alloyed with zinc loſt one pennyweight, by volatilization. And,

"That gold alloyed with arſenic, not only loſt the whole quantity of alloy, but alſo two grains of the gold, which were carried off in conſequence of the volatilization of the arſenic.

"Lewis, however, aſſerts that gold is more volatilized by antimony than by arſenic or zinc; but to produce this effect, the fire muſt be vehement, the crucible ſhallow, and the air ſtrongly impelled. Theſe circumſtances, according to their variations, muſt undoubtedly very much influence the reſults of ſuch experiments; and, therefore, although the reverſe was found to take place in the experiments here ſtated, it does not follow that certain changes ſhould not be produced by different degrees of heat, by the figure of the veſſels, and by a current of air more or leſs ſtrong.

"The whole of the experiments of this ſection tend to prove, that (agreeably to general practice and opinion) only two of the metals are proper for the alloy of gold coin, namely, ſilver and copper; as all the others either conſiderably alter the colour, or diminiſh the ductility, of gold. In reſpect to the latter quality, the different metallic ſubſtances which have been employed in the preſent experiments, appear to affect gold nearly in the following decreaſing order.

"1. Biſmuth, 2. Lead, 3. Antimony, theſe are nearly equal in effect. 4. Arſenic. 5. Zinc. 6. Cobalt. 7. Manganeſe. 8. Nickel. 9. Tin. 10. Iron. 11. Platina. 12. Copper. 13. Silver."

The

The ſecond ſection, which treats of the ſpecific gravities of different alloys of gold, commences by pointing out the difficulties which attend theſe experiments, and which ariſe from the imperfection of balances, from the fluctuating nature of the materials, from inviſible vacuities, &c.

"When metals," this author obſerves, "are caſt in a mould, they ſpeedily become cold; and according to the quantity and quality of the metal, the figure and poſition of the mould, and the greater or leſs rapidity of the cooling, metals may vary in texture, and in the relative proportion and arrangement of their interſtices; and conſequently the maſs, in different parts, may be of unequal degrees of denſity. For, a metal of a uniform quality in other reſpects, generally becomes moſt denſe in the bottom of the mould, eſpecially when a long bar of heavy metal is caſt in a vertical poſition.

"Thoſe metals, which are very ductile, may, by hammering and rolling, be brought more nearly to a certain uniform denſity; for the number and capacity of the interſtices, or air-bladders, in the interior of the maſs, are thus more or leſs diminiſhed, and although the brittle metals, or ſemimetals, as they are improperly called, cannot be thus treated; yet, when reduced to powder, or into ſmall fragments, they expoſe a large ſurface, and conſequently the error produced by interſtices or cavities is much reduced.

"But, neither hammering, rolling, nor pulverization, can be applied to thoſe metallic ſubſtances, whether ſimple or mixed, which are neither ſufficiently malleable to be rolled, nor ſufficiently brittle to be reduced into powder; and this laſt difficulty moſt frequently occurs in mixed or alloyed metals.

"It is well known, that the ſpecific gravity of an alloyed metal is ſeldom that which, by calculating the reſpective ſpecific gravities and proportions of the different metals, would be the reſult; on the contrary, the ſpecific gravity of the alloyed maſs, is frequently greater or leſs than it ought to be according to calculation."

Theſe obſervations are followed by a pretty long table of the ſpecific gravities of various alloys, wherein the abſolute weight of the gold, as well as of the other metallic ſubſtance, or ſubſtances, in each ſpecimen, is particularly ſtated; and to this is added, the aſcertained ſpecific gravity of the compound.

"From theſe and other experiments," Mr. H. ſays, "I am induced to believe, that, in general, the ſpecific gravity of gold alloyed with different metals, is not only very different from what it ought to be according to calculations made on the relative proportion, and ſpecific gravity of the alloy, but that it is alſo ſubject to many variations, partly occaſioned by peculiar effects produced by certain proportions of ſome of the metals, and partly by effects peculiar to certain compound alloys; ſo that, by the proportions of certain metals, and by the combination of theſe with others, an immenſe complicated ſeries of alterations in ſpecific gravity are produced, which as yet do not appear to have been inveſtigated, by thoſe philoſophers who have written concerning the ſpecific gravity of metals.

" The ſpecific gravity of ſtandard gold being found by the preceding experiments to be ſo extremely variable, according to the nature and quantity of the metals which were employed ſingly or conjointly as alloys, the following table has been added, to ſhow the comparative degrees of expanſion and contraction which took place, in conſequence of theſe combinations."

The table, then, which follows the above paragraph, is a long and uſeful production of labour and perſeverance. It conſiſts of eight columns, under the titles of

" 1ſt. *Metals*, viz. the metallic ſubſtances which form the compounds. 2dly. *The ſpecific gravity.* 3dly. *Weights.* 4thly. *Bulk before combination in grains of water.* 5thly. *Bulk after combination.* 6thly. *Expanſion.* 7thly. *Contraction.* And, laſtly, *The ſpecific gravity of the maſs.*"

In order to ſhow the neceſſity for conſtructing this table, and the uſe of it, we ſhall tranſcribe a few of the obſervations that are ſubjoined to it.

" Very little alteration appears to have been produced by alloying gold with $\frac{1}{12}$ of pure ſilver; for the alloyed maſs only differed from the natural bulk of the two metals by 0,1; and this accords with former obſervations upon the effects which theſe metals produce on each other.

" But in the next caſe, which conſiſted of gold alloyed with equal parts of ſilver and copper, the expanſion amounted to 0,67; which is the more remarkable, as, in the ſubſequent article, copper being employed ſingly, produced only an expanſion of 0,66. It appears, therefore, that the compound alloy of ſilver and copper, being added in the proportion of $\frac{1}{12}$ to gold, cauſes a degree of expanſion ſuperior to that produced by copper, although it might be previouſly imagined, that the ſilver would have checked or diminiſhed the expanſive property of the copper.

" $\frac{1}{12}$ of iron appears to have cauſed an expanſion rather inferior to that of copper; but an alloy compoſed of equal parts of iron and copper, produced an expanſion leſs than the former. This effect ſeems alſo to be peculiar to this compound alloy; for, according to the effects which copper was found ſingly to produce upon gold, the compound alloy of iron and copper ought to have produced an expanſion ſuperior to that cauſed by iron alone.

" A conſiderable contraction was cauſed when $\frac{1}{12}$ of tin was added to gold; but, as an attempt had been made to paſs the maſs between rollers, before the ſpecific gravity was taken, the contraction muſt not be eſtimated at ſo much as 0,53.

" When gold was alloyed with equal parts of tin and copper, the contraction was found to be only 0,02; but, in the next caſe, when the copper amounted to 30 grains, and the tin only to 8, an expanſion took place, equal to 0,14.

" $\frac{1}{12}$ of lead produced an expanſion equal to 0,14; but, from the ſimilarity of all the other effects of lead to thoſe of biſmuth, I am inclined

clined to believe, that lead, in ſome proportion greater than $\frac{1}{12}$, would produce contraction. In all the inſtances, however, ſtated in the table, expanſion was obſerved; and, when lead was in the proportion of 4 grains to 34 of copper, or of half a grain to $37\frac{1}{2}$ of the ſame metal, then a very remarkable expanſion took place, which ſeemed to be a peculiar effect of this compound alloy; for, in the ſubſequent caſe, when the lead was reduced to $\frac{1}{4}$ of a grain, the degree of expanſion was much leſs."

Two other tables are contained in the ſame ſection; the firſt of which is intended to ſhow the various ſtatements, by different authors, of the ſpecific gravity of fine and ſtandard gold; the other table exhibits the ſpecific gravities of divers Engliſh gold coins, at the temperature of 60°.

The third ſection, on the wear of gold, is ſubdivided into three parts, for the diſtinct conſideration of three different modes of wear, namely, the friction between pieces of gold coin; the friction of gold coin againſt coin of other metals, ſuch as ſilver and copper; and the friction which gold coins of various qualities ſuffer, when expoſed to the action of certain ſubſtances, ſuch as the particles or filings of metals, gritty powders, &c.

In order to inveſtigate this particular, coins of different ſorts were put together, and were cauſed to rub againſt each other, in a variety of ways, in different apparatuſes, and with different velocities. For this purpoſe, a very proper inſtrument was alſo contrived by Mr. Cavendiſh, which is particularly deſcribed in the paper, and a delineation of it is ſhown in an annexed plate. The coins were likewiſe cauſed to rub againſt other ſubſtances, in a variety of ways; and the reſults of all thoſe experiments are ſtated in fourteen tables; but, with reſpect to thoſe particulars, we muſt unavoidably refer our readers to the paper itſelf: we ſhall therefore conclude the account of this paper with the following general remark.

"The experiments," this author ſays, "on the comparative wear of gold, which are deſcribed in the laſt ſection, were attended with conſiderable difficulties; for this reaſon, the concluſions have been founded only upon ſuch facts as were uniformly the ſame under every circumſtance. Theſe general concluſions have been already fully ſtated; but we may again obſerve, that gold of moderate ductility is (all things being conſidered) the beſt adapted to the purpoſe of coin; and that the real wear of ſuch coin is, in all probability, very ſlowly effected; ſo that a long period of time muſt elapſe before any conſiderable diminution in weight can be perceived."

V. *Ob-*

V. *Obſervations on the Chemical Nature of the Humours of the Eye.* By Richard Chenevix, Eſq.

The probability of illuſtrating the mechanical ſtructure of the eye, and the contradictory opinions which had been entertained by certain authors concerning the chemical nature of the humours of that organ, were the cauſes which principally induced Mr. Ch. to undertake a chemical examination of thoſe humours; and it is an account of ſuch examination that forms the ſubject of the preſent paper.

His experiments were performed upon ſheep's eyes, upon human eyes, and upon the eyes of oxen; all of which were as freſh as could be procured. The principal reſults of thoſe experiments are as follows.

The ſpecific gravity of the aqueous humour of a ſheep's eye was found to be 10,090 at 60° of Farenheit's thermometer. Its conſtituent ingredients appeared to be water, albumen, gelatine, and a muriate of ſoda.

The cryſtalline humour of the ſame differs very materially from the others. Its ſpecific gravity is 1100. It contains a ſmaller proportion of water than the other humours, but a much larger proportion of albumen and gelatine.

The vitreous humour of the ſame eye ſeemed to be exactly like the aqueous, both with reſpect to its ſpecific gravity, and to its chemical nature.

The humours of the human eye, this author found to contain nothing different from thoſe of the ſheep's eye. The ſpecific gravities, however, are different from thoſe of the ſheep; the ſpecific gravity, either of the aqueous or of the vitreous humour, being 10,053, and that of the cryſtalline being 10,790.

With reſpect to the humours of the eyes of oxen, this author ſays:

"I found the eyes of oxen to contain the ſame ſubſtances as the reſpective humours of other eyes. The ſpecific gravity of the aqueous and vitreous humours is 10,088, and that of the cryſtalline 10,765.

"What is particularly worthy of notice is, that the difference which appears to exiſt between the ſpecific gravity of the aqueous or vitreous humour and that of the cryſtalline, is much greater in the human eye than in that of ſheep, and leſs in the eye of the ox. Hence it would appear, that the difference between the denſity of the aqueous and vitreous humour and that of the cryſtalline, is in the inverſe ratio of the diameter of the eye, taken from the cornea to the optic nerve. Should further experiments ſhow this to be a univerſal law in nature, it will not be poſſible to deny, that it is in ſome degree deſigned for the purpoſe of promoting diſtinct viſion."

VI. *An*

VI. *An Account of ſome Stones ſaid to have fallen on the Earth in France; and a Lump of native Iron, ſaid to have fallen in India.* By the Right Hon. Charles Greville.

This paper contains ſome additional facts, in corroboration of the idea that ſeveral ſtony ſubſtances have at various times fallen from the ſky. The principal evidence concerning the reality of ſuch facts conſiſts in the atteſtation of a great many eye-witneſſes, and in the ſimilarity of nature which ſuch ſtones or ſtony concretions appear to have, as has been ſufficiently proved by the labours of various able perſons, eſpecially of Mr. Howard and the Count de Bournon.

Since the publication of thoſe gentlemen's papers in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, of which proper notice has been taken in a former number of the Britiſh Critic, Mr. Greville has received three other ſpecimens of ſuch celeſtial ſtones, of which he gives the following account.

"Monſieur St. Amand very obligingly divided with me a ſpecimen he had broken from a ſtone of about 15 inches diameter, preſerved in the Muſeum of Bourdeaux, which ſtone fell near Roqueford, in the Landes, on the 20th of Auguſt, 1789, during the exploſion of a meteor: it broke through the roof of a cottage, and killed a herdſman and ſome cattle. M. St. Amand alſo gave me part of a ſtone he had preſerved in his collection ever ſince the year 1790; when a ſhower of ſtones, weighing from half an ounce to 15 and 25 pounds each, fell in the pariſhes of Grange and Creon, and alſo in the pariſh of Juliac, in Armagnac; which fact was, at the time, verified by Duby, Mayor of Armile, and publiſhed by Bertholon, in the *Journal des Sciences utiles de Montpellier*, in the year 1790.

"The third ſpecimen I owe to the Marquis de Drec; it is a fragment, broken from a ſtone of 22 pounds weight, which fell near the village Salles, not far from Villefranche, in Burgundy, on the 12th of March, 1798: this was alſo accompanied by a meteor.

"I content myſelf with the mere recital of the facts, in confirmation of the obſervations preſented to the Society; as theſe three additional ſpecimens have preciſely the ſame characters, texture, and appearance as the others in my collection; and are ſcarcely, by the eye, to be diſtinguiſhed from them."

Beſides the above account, the preſent paper likewiſe contains an extract from the Memoirs of the Emperor Jehangire, written in Perſian by himſelf, and tranſlated by Colonel Kirkpatrick.

This extract being of a very curious nature, we ſhall tranſcribe it for the ſatisfaction of our readers.

"A. H. 1030, or 16th year of the reign. The following is among the extraordinary occurrences of this period.

"Early

" Early on the 30th of Furverdeen, of the preſent year*, and in the eaſtern quarter (of the heavens) there aroſe, in one of the villages of the Purgunnah in Jalindher, ſuch a great and tremendous noiſe, as had nearly, by its dreadful nature, deprived the inhabitants of the place of their ſenſes. During this noiſe, a luminous body (was obſerved) to fall from above on the earth, ſuggeſting to the beholders the idea that the firmament was raining fire. In a ſhort time, the noiſe having ſubſided, and the inhabitants having recovered from their alarm, a courier was diſpatched (by them) to Mahommed Syeed, the Aumil of the aforeſaid Purgunnah, to advertiſe him of this event. The Aumil inſtantly mounting (his horſe,) proceeded to the ſpot (where the luminous body had fallen.) Here he perceived the earth, to the extent of ten or twelve guz†, in length and breadth, to be burnt to ſuch a degree, that not the leaſt trace of verdure or a blade of graſs remained; nor had the heat (which had been communicated to it) yet ſubſided entirely.

" Mahommed Syeed hereupon directed the aforeſaid ſpace of ground to be dug up; when the deeper it was dug, the greater was the heat of it found to be. At length a lump of iron made its appearance; the heat of which was ſo violent, that one might have ſuppoſed it to have been taken from a furnace. After ſome time it became cold; when the Aumil conveyed it to his own habitation, from whence he afterwards diſpatched it, in a ſealed bag, to court.

" Here I had (this ſubſtance) weighed in my preſence. Its weight was 160 tolahs‡. I committed it to a ſkilful artiſan, with orders to make of it a ſabre, a knife, and a dagger. The workman (ſoon) reported, that the ſubſtance was *not malleable, but ſhivered into pieces under the hammer.*

" Upon this, I ordered it to be mixed with other iron. Conformably to my orders, three parts of the *iron* of *lightning* were mixed with one part of common iron; and from the mixture were made, two ſabres, one knife, and one dagger.

" By the addition of common iron, the (new) ſubſtance acquired a (fine) temper; the blade (fabricated from it) proving as elaſtic as the moſt genuine blades of Ulmanny and of the ſouth, and bending, like them, without leaving any mark of the bend. I had them tried in my preſence, and found them cut excellently, as well (indeed) as the beſt genuine ſabres. One of theſe ſabres I named *Katai*, or *the cutter*, and the other *Burk-ſeriſht*, or the *lightning-natured*."

VII. *Obſervations on the Structure of the Tongue; illuſtrated by Caſes, in which a Portion of that Organ has been removed by Ligature.* By E. Home, Eſq.

This paper ſhows a very remarkable, as well as uſeful, fact in animal œconomy. It proves that the internal ſtructure of

* Correſponding with A. D. 1620.
† A guz is rather leſs than a yard.
‡ A tolah is about 180 grains Troy weight.

the

the human tongue is not of that delicate and ſenſible nature which one might be inclined to imagine; and that, in caſe of cancer, or other very dangerous diſorder, a portion of that organ may be ſafely and effectually removed. This author relates three caſes of this nature, wherein the operation was ſucceſsfully performed by himſelf. He deſcribes the method of operating, points out the caſes in which ſuch operation may be adviſeable, and accompanies the whole with ſagacious remarks.

VIII. *Obſervations on the Tranſit of Mercury over the Diſk of the Sun; to which is added, an Inveſtigation of the Cauſes which often prevent the proper Action of Mirrors.* By William Herſchel, LL. D.

During the tranſit of the planet Mercury over the diſk of the Sun, on the morning of the 9th of November, 1802, Dr. H. made ſeveral obſervations relative to the colour, figure, &c. of the planet; and it is a ſtatement of thoſe obſervations that forms the principal part of the preſent paper. It is ſtated, that the planet appeared very dark, remarkably well defined, and of a perfectly ſpherical figure; "ſo that," this author obſerves, "unleſs its polar axis ſhould have happened to be ſituated, at the time of obſervation, in a line drawn from the eye to the Sun, the planet cannot be materially flattened at its poles."

This is followed by *obſervations and experiments relating to the cauſes which often affect mirrors, ſo as to prevent their ſhowing objects diſtinctly.*

Here this author collects together various remarks, made by himſelf, at various times, in the courſe of his aſtronomical obſervations, concerning the perfect or imperfect performance of his teleſcopes; which particulars ſeemed to have ſome dependance upon the weather, or other accidental circumſtances. He alſo relates ſome experiments, made by himſelf, purpoſely for the inveſtigation of the above-mentioned properties of teleſcopes.

Thoſe remarks are arranged under the titles of moiſture in the air, fogs, froſt, hoar froſt, dry air, northern lights, windy weather, &c.

The principle which this author has been able to derive from all thoſe obſervations is, "that in order to ſee well with teleſcopes, it is requiſite that the temperature of the atmoſphere and mirror ſhould be uniform, and the air fraught with moiſture."

This paper is accompanied with one plate.

IX. *An*

IX. *An Account of ſome Experiments and Obſervations on the conſtituent Parts of certain aſtringent Vegetables, and on their Operation in Tanning.* By Humphry Davy, Eſq.

A ſeries of experiments, undertaken at the deſire of the managers of the Royal Inſtitution, on the ſubſtances employed in the proceſs of tanning, and on the chemical agencies concerned in it, forms the ſubject of the preſent paper, which is divided into five ſections, under the following titles. I. Obſervations on the Analyſis of aſtringent vegetable Infuſions. II. Experiments on the Infuſion of Galls. III. Experiments and Obſervations on *Catechu*, or Terra Japonica. IV. Experiments and Obſervations on the aſtringent Infuſions of Barks, and other vegetable Productions. V. General Obſervations.

With reſpect to the particulars that are contained in the firſt four ſections, we muſt unavoidably refer our readers to the paper itſelf, as they are not ſuſceptible of an abridgment ſufficiently ſhort and diſtinct; but we ſhall tranſcribe from the fifth ſection ſuch paragraphs as may ſeem to demand peculiar notice.

"From the experiments," this author ſays, "that have been detailed, it appears, that the *ſpecific* agencies of tannin, in all the different aſtringent infuſions, are the ſame. In every inſtance, it is capable of entering into union with the acids, alkalis, and earths; and of forming inſoluble compounds with gelatine and with ſkin. The infuſions of the barks effect the greater number of reagents in a manner ſimilar to the infuſion of galls; and, that this laſt fluid is rendered green by the carbonated alkalis, evidently depends upon the large proportion of gallic acid it contains. The infuſion of ſumach owes its characteriſtic property, of being precipitated by the cauſtic alkalis, to the preſence of ſulphate of lime; and, that the ſolutions of catechu do not copiouſly precipitate the carbonated alkalis, appears to depend upon their containing tannin in a peculiar ſtate of union with extractive matter, and uncombined with gallic acid or earthy ſalts.

"In making ſome experiments upon the affinities of the tanning principle, I found that all the earths were capable of attracting it from the alkalis; and ſo great is their tendency to combine with it, that, by means of them, the compound of tannin and gelatine may be decompoſed without much difficulty; for, after pure magneſia has been boiled for a few hours with this ſubſtance diffuſed through water, it became of a red brown colour, and the fluid obtained by filtration produced a diſtinct precipitate with ſolution of galls. The acids have leſs affinity for tannin than for gelatine; and, in caſes where compounds of the acids and tannin are acted on by ſolution of gelatine, an equilibrium of affinity is eſtabliſhed; in conſequence of which, by far the greateſt quantity of tannin is carried down in the inſoluble combination. The different neutral ſalts have, comparatively, feeble powers of attraction for the tanning principle; but, that the

the precipitation they occaſion in aſtringent ſolutions is not ſimply owing to the circumſtance of their uniting to a portion of the water which held the vegetable ſubſtances in ſolution, is evident from many facts, beſides thoſe which have been already ſtated. The ſolutions of alum, and of ſome other ſalts which are leſs ſoluble in water than tannin, produce, in many aſtringent infuſions, precipitates as copious as the more ſoluble ſaline matters; and ſulphate of lime, and other earthy neutral compounds, which are, comparatively ſpeaking, inſoluble in water, ſpeedily deprive them of their tanning principle."

P. 270. "In conſidering the relations of the different facts that have been detailed to the proceſs of tanning and of leather-making, it will appear ſufficiently evident, that when ſkin is tanned in aſtringent infuſions that contain, as well as tannin, extractive matters, portions of theſe matters enter, with the tannin, into chemical combination with the ſkin. In no caſe is there any reaſon to believe, that gallic acid is abſorbed in this proceſs.

"The different qualities of leather made with the ſame kind of ſkin ſeem to depend very much upon the different quantities of extractive matter it contains. The leather obtained by means of infuſion of galls is generally found harder, and more liable to crack, than the leather obtained from the infuſions of barks; and, in all caſes, it contains a much larger proportion of tannin, and a ſmaller proportion of extractive matter.

"When ſkin is very ſlowly tanned in weak ſolutions of the barks, or of catechu, it combines with a conſiderable proportion of extractive matter; and, in theſe caſes, though the increaſe of weight of the ſkin is comparatively ſmall, yet it is rendered perfectly inſoluble in water; and is found ſoft, and at the ſame time ſtrong.

"In examining aſtringent vegetables in relation to their powers of tanning ſkin, it is neceſſary to take into account, not only the quantity they contain of the *ſubſtance* precipitable by gelatine, but likewiſe the quantity and the nature of the extractive matter; and, in caſes of compariſon, it is eſſential to employ infuſions of the ſame degree of concentration.

"It is evident from the experiments detailed in the third ſection, that of all the aſtringent ſubſtances which have been as yet examined, catechu is that which contains the largeſt proportion of tannin; and, in ſuppoſing, according to the common eſtimation, that from four to five pounds of common oak bark are required to produce one pound of leather, it appears, from the various ſynthetical experiments, that about half a pound of catechu would anſwer the ſame purpoſe.

"Alſo, allowing for the difference in the compoſition of the different kinds of leather, it appears, from the general detail of facts, that one pound of catechu, for the common uſes of the tanner, would be nearly equal in value to $2\frac{1}{4}$ pounds of galls, to $7\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of the bark of the Leiceſter willow, to 11 pounds of the Spaniſh cheſnut, to 18 pounds of the bark of the elm, to 21 pounds of the bark of the common willow, and to 3 pounds of ſumach.

"Various menſtruums have been propoſed, for the purpoſe of expediting and improving the proceſs of tanning, and, amongſt them, lime-water and the ſolutions of pearl-aſh; but, as theſe two ſubſtances

form

form compounds with tannin which are not decompoſable by gelatine, it follows that their effects muſt be highly pernicious; and there is very little reaſon to ſuppoſe, that any bodies will be found which at the ſame time that they increaſe the ſolubility of tannin in water, will not likewiſe diminiſh its attraction for ſkin."

X. *Appendix to Mr. William Henry's Paper, on the Quantity of Gaſes abſorbed by Water, at different Temperatures, and under different Preſſures.*

In this ſhort Appendix, Mr. H. mentions the reſults of ſome experiments, made by himſelf, ſubſequent to the date of the paper which forms the third article of the book we are at preſent examining. From theſe reſults, Mr. H. is enabled to give a more exact ſtatement of the quantities of certain gaſes that are abſorbed by water: the difference, however, is not very remarkable.

The laſt article, which forms the Appendix to this firſt Part of the Philoſophical Tranſactions of 1803, is the Meteorological Journal, kept at the Apartments of the Royal Society, by Order of the Preſident and Council, from January 1, to December 31, 1802.

It conſiſts, as uſual, of eleven columns, namely, 1. days of the month; 2. Six's thermometer; 3. time of making the obſervation; 4. thermometer without; 5. thermometer within; 6. barometer; 7. hygrometer; 8. rain; 9. winds; 10. ſtrength of ditto; and, 11. weather.

Two obſervations of thoſe particulars are ſtated for each day of the year. From thoſe ſtatements it appears, that the greateſt cold was obſerved in January, when the thermometer was found to ſtand as low as 15°; the greateſt heat, namely 82°, was obſerved in Auguſt. The greateſt height of the mercury in the barometer, namely 30,48 inches, took place in March; and the leaſt, namely 28,63 inches, in November. The whole quantity of rain fallen throughout the year is 13,946 inches, which is conſiderably below the uſual quantity.

ART. IV. *The Hiſtory and Antiquities of Pleſhy, in the County of Eſſex.* 4to. 162 pp. 1l. 1s. Payne, 1803.

THE former works of Mr. Gough have been ſo eminently uſeful, in making the ſtudy of antiquity ſubſervient to the moſt important purpoſes, that we announce the preſent publi-

cation

cation with peculiar pleaſure. Although inferior to ſome of his beſt productions, and but the detached hiſtory of a ſmall ſpot, it yet forms collectively a maſs of information, the value of which cannot in juſtice be lowly appreciated.

The early hiſtory of Pleſhy ſeems to have been briefly this. By whatever name originally deſigned, it was no inconſiderable Roman ſtation; and the Roman work may yet be eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the Norman additions. It afterwards became the property of Ely Abbey, from whoſe poſſeſſion it was taken by Alfere, the High Conſtable in the Conqueror's time; and it remained the reſidence of our High Conſtables for four centuries afterwards; cloſing with Thomas of Woodſtock, the ſixth ſon of Edward III. afterwards Duke of Glouceſter.

But Pleſhy, if we are not miſtaken, is memorable on another account. Inſpired by the ſcenery and hiſtory of this place, Mr. Gough firſt became an antiquary. It was on this account that Mr. Tyſon, in 1779, deſigning the vignette in the title-page, and introduced the great arch mentioned at p. 159; to which he added, with propriety, the works of Camden and Dugdale, an old Roman urn found at Verulam, with a map of England, and a plate of coins, as the proper implements of a topographer.

In the Preface, Mr. Gough obſerves,

" it is impoſſible to view the ſite of Pleſhy, or to trace its hiſtory, without entering into that of its Lords; and the hiſtory of Thomas of Woodſtock is a hiſtory of the firſt twenty years of the unfortunate reign of his nephew, and a key to the misfortunes that overwhelmed him in the two laſt."

This part of the work will of courſe afford a lively intereſt to moſt readers; and preſents ſome repreſentations, in the boiſterous reign of Richard, in a clearer point of view than we have uſually ſeen them.

" Perhaps no contemporary hiſtorian," ſays Mr. Gough, " has ſet his actions in a truer light than the lively and inquiſitive Froiſſart, who omitted no opportunity of ſatisfying his curioſity, and whoſe impartiality has been proved beyond contradiction. In this view, large extracts have been made from his hiſtory, which, I am ſorry to ſay, has been ſo diſfigured in all the editions hitherto printed, that it was neceſſary to have recourſe to a beautiful MS. of it in the royal library, now in the Britiſh Muſeum.

" Froiſſart was a favourite book of Mr. Gray; who thought it ſtrange, that people who would give thouſands for a dozen portraits (originals of that time) to furniſh a gallery, ſhould never caſt an eye on ſo many moving pictures of the life, actions, manners, and thoughts of their anceſtors, done on the ſpot, in ſtrong though ſimple colours.

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He conſidered him as the Herodotus of a barbarous age: had he but had the luck of writing in as good a language, he might have been immortal. His locomotive diſpoſition (for then there were no other ways of learning things), his ſimple curioſity, his religious credulity, were much like thoſe of the old Grecian."

It is from the hiſtorical portion of the work our principal extracts ſhall be taken. Having traced the life and ſervices of Thomas of Woodſtock from his birth, Mr. Gough relates the arreſt of his perſon, from the manuſcript of Froiſſart, exhibiting the original in the margin.

" The King of England came, under pretence of recreation and hunting, to a manor 25 miles of London, called *Havrings le Bourg* [Havering Bower] in the county of *Exceſtre* [Eſſex] 20 miles from London, and 20 or thereabouts from Plaiſy, where the Duke of Glouceſter conſtantly reſided. The King ſet out one afternoon from Havering, not taking all his attendants with him, having left them at [Elten] Eltham with the Queen, and came to Plaiſy about 5 o'clock. It was fine warm weather; and, when he entered the caſtle of Plaiſy, they were ſurpriſed to hear " Here comes the King." The Duke of Glouceſter had juſt ſupped, for he was very temperate, and ſat but a little while at table, either at dinner or ſupper. He came out to meet the king in the court of the caſtle, and paid his reſpects to him as his ſovereign; for he was a nobleman of great politeneſs. The Dutcheſs and her children, who were there, did the ſame. The King went into the hall, and then into the apartment. A table was preſently ſpread for him; and, after a ſhort ſupper, he ſaid to the Duke, Good uncle, order five or ſix of your horſes to be ſaddled; you muſt go with me to London, for to-morrow I am to meet the Londoners, and we ſhall find there my uncles of York and Lancaſter without fail. I mean to take your advice on a petition they are to preſent to me; and order your ſteward to follow with your people to London, where they will find you. The Duke, ſuſpecting no harm, obeyed him forthwith. The King preſently finiſhed his ſupper, and roſe up. Every body was ready. The King took leave of the Dutcheſs and her children, and mounted his horſe. The Duke did the ſame, and ſet out from Plaiſy, attended by only ſeven of his people, three eſquires, and four ſervants. They took the road to Bondelay, as being the moſt level, and to avoid the town of Behode* and others, and the high London road. They rode hard, for the King was in haſte to get to London, and all the day talked with his uncle of Glouceſter, till they came to Stadforte†, and the river Thames. When the King came to the place where the ambuſh lay, he rode on before, and left his uncle behind; and then came up the Earl Marſhal behind him, with a great troop of men and horſes, and ſprung on the Duke of Glouceſter, ſaying, I arreſt you by the King's order. The Duke was thunderſtruck, and ſaw he was be-

trayed,

* *Brendwode.* Bourchier.

† *Stratford* on the river Thames. Bourchier.

ſtayed, and began to call aloud to the King. Whether the King heard him, I know not; but he did not turn back, but rode on faſt, and his people followed him." P. 75.

This account Mr. Gough has compared with thoſe of other hiſtorians; for in this, as in almoſt every inſtance, where tyrannical power is exerciſed clandeſtinely, minute particulars are not always conſiſtently related. Nor are the circumſtances of his death reported with leſs variety.

"Froiſſart continues his narrative, that the Duke was put into a boat, and conveyed to a ſhip which lay at anchor in the Thames. The Earl-Marſhal and all his people attending him, they put out to ſea, and, by favour of the wind, arrived late next day at Calais, without any ones knowing it except the King's officers there. It is eaſy to conceive the ſurprize and diſtreſs of the Dutcheſs and her children, when the news of the Duke's apprehenſion came to Plaiſſy. They ſoon ſaw what turn matters were likely to take, and what danger threatened the Duke their Lord. They conſulted with John Lakingay what meaſures were proper to be purſued on the occaſion; and he adviſed them to ſend directly to the Dukes of York and Lancaſter, his brothers, who might intercede with the King, and divert the ſtorm; this was the only way, for the King would be afraid to provoke them. The Dutcheſs followed his advice, and ſent immediately expreſs to the two Dukes who were not together, but a great way aſunder. They were both provoked at the arreſt of their brother, and ſent word to the Dutcheſs not to be caſt down about her huſband, for the King, their nephew, dared not, nor would be ſuffered, to do any thing with him that was contrary to juſtice and reaſon. The Dutcheſs of Glouceſter and her children were ſomewhat comforted by theſe words. The King ſet out early from the Tower, and came to Eltham, where he ſtayed. The ſame evening were brought to the Tower, and committed to cloſe impriſonment, the Earls of Arundel and Warwick, to the univerſal ſurprize both of the Londoners and the whole kingdom, who murmured greatly at it; nobody, however, dared to oppoſe the King, but looked towards the Dukes of York and Lancaſter, who would take proper meaſures upon it: and they would have done ſo, had they known the King's reſolution, and what he propoſed to do with their brother: but all their diſpatch could not prevent matters taking the unhappy turn which I ſhall now relate. When the Duke of Glouceſter was brought to the caſtle of Calais, and ſaw himſelf confined and deprived of his attendants, he was ſeized with fear, and ſaid to the Earl-Marſhal, "For what cauſe am I conveyed from England hither? I ſeem to be deprived of my liberty. Let me walk about, and ſee the caſtle and the town." "My Lord," anſwered the Marſhal, "what you deſire I dare not allow, for you are committed to my cuſtody, on pain of death. The King, our maſter, is at preſent a little angry with you, and commands that you ſtay here with us; and you ſhall do ſo till I have orders to the contrary, and if it pleaſe God, this ſhall be ſhortly; for, God knows, I am much concerned at your misfortune, and would help you if I could; but you know I am bound by oath to the King; I muſt obey,

and

and I will for my honour." The Duke of Glouceſter could get no redreſs, and, by what he ſaw one day, began to ſuſpect that his life was in danger. He ſent for a prieſt, who had ſung maſs before him, to come and confeſs him, which he did with great deliberation, and proſtrated himſelf before the altar in an orderly manner, and with a devout and contrite heart, and prayed to God the Creator of all things for mercy, and was very ſorrowful and penitent for his ſins. It was well for him that he then ſettled his conſcience: for miſchief was nearer to him than he thought. For, as I am informed, at dinner time, and when the cloth was laid, in the caſtle of Calais, juſt as he was waſhing his hands, four men appointed for the purpoſe ruſhed out of a room, and caſting a towel round his neck, drew it ſo violently, two on each ſide, that they threw him down and ſtrangled him. After they had cloſed his eyes, they placed his dead body on a bed, and ſtripping it naked, laid it between two ſheets, with the head on a pillow, and covered it with furred robes. They then went out of the room, and came into the hall, and, as they had been before inſtructed, reported that the Duke of Glouceſter had been ſeized with an apoplexy as he was waſhing his hands, and that they had the utmoſt difficulty to get him to bed. The ſtory was circulated publicly in the caſtle, and in the town, and ſome believed it and others did not. Two days after, it was ſtrongly reported about, that the Duke of Glouceſter had died in his bed in the caſtle of Calais. The Earl-Marſhal put on mourning, as being his near relation, and ſo did all the Knights and Eſquires in Calais." P. 89.

Much, however, as we feel pleaſed with the Hiſtory of Pleſhy, we cannot altogether coincide with Mr. Gough in the character he has drawn of the Duke of Glouceſter. Treacherous, cowardly, and cruel, as might be Richard's diſpoſition, that of his uncle was by no means ſuited either to calm the headlong meaſures of the King, or eaſe the burthens of the people. Thomas of Woodſtock, to great abilities and popular manners, added the pride of princely extraction, the poſſeſſion of enormous wealth, and a turbulent, crafty, and malicious mind. He ſcrupled nothing to cultivate his popularity; and courted the friendſhip of every man whom diſappointment or revenge had rendered an enemy to the government. In ſhort, he fell a ſacrifice, not ſo much to the mere reſentment of Richard, as to his own caballing and intrigues.

At p. 161, follows the Hiſtory of Pleſhy Church, with that of the College, p. 169; the latter was founded by the Duke of Glouceſter, about 1393, and ſuppreſſed among the leſſer monaſteries by King Henry VIII. in 1536.

The plates, fifteen in number, are, generally ſpeaking, more remarkable for fidelity than execution; the laſt is perhaps the beſt; it is taken from an illumination in a MS. of the time of Henry the Seventh, in the Royal Library at the Muſeum, and excites conſiderable intereſt. It relates to Charles, Duke of

Orleans, who was taken priſoner at the battle of Agincourt, 1415, and detained no leſs than five and twenty years in England. He is repreſented in the White Tower writing, and attended by guards. At a diſtance is London Bridge, with the houſes and chapel built upon it, and the latter building is ſo minutely drawn, as to afford a very good idea of what it really was.

The Appendix of records and documents in illuſtration of the work, including a large extract from Gower's "Hiſtoria Tripartita," occupies 112 pages; and is accompanied by the "Statutes and Prayers for a Gild of All Saints in the Church of Morton, in Eſſex, in 1473."

We gladly welcome this publication as a valuable acceſſion to our antiquarian literature; and can promiſe our readers, that a peruſal of the Hiſtory of Pleſhy will prove both intereſting and inſtructive.

ART. V. *The Natural Hiſtory of the Human Teeth; including a particular Elucidation of the Changes which take Place during the Second Dentition, and deſcribing the proper Mode of Treatment to prevent Irregularities of the Teeth. To which is added, an Account of the Diſeaſes which affect Children during the Firſt Dentition. Illuſtrated with Thirteen Copper-plates. By Joſeph Fox, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c.* 4to. 1l. 1s. Johnſon. 1803.

MANY years have elapſed ſince that able anatomiſt, Mr. John Hunter, publiſhed his work on the teeth; a work, as indeed the author of the preſent treatiſe acknowledges, of unrivalled merit; in which, however, it is here remarked, that ſome circumſtances relative to the management of the teeth, during the different ſtages of dentition, are not explained with the requiſite degree of preciſion. Mr. Fox has, therefore, been induced to publiſh the preſent volume, an undertaking for which he appears to have been well qualified, by the poſſeſſion of a ſeries of preparations, exhibiting the teeth under all their changes, and by the frequent opportunities of obſervation which an extenſive practice in this branch of ſurgery has afforded him. This branch of practice, as he remarks, is every day more and more attended to by perſons of the medical profeſſion, in conſequence of the inhabitants in moſt parts of the country, as well as the metropolis, being at length

aware, how much a good condition of these instruments of mastication contributes, not merely to beauty and comfort, but even to health.

The present work is divided into eleven Chapters. The author treats, in Chap. I. of the Formation of the temporary Set of Teeth; in Chap. II. of the Formation of the permanent Set of Teeth; in Chap. III. of the Manner in which the Teeth are formed; in Chap. IV. of the shedding of the Teeth; in Chap. V. of the Irregularity of the Teeth; in Chap. VI. of the Treatment to prevent their Irregularity; in Chap. VII. of the Treatment to remedy their Irregularities; in Chap. VIII. of supernumerary Teeth; in Chap. IX. of the Decay of the temporary Teeth; in Chap. X. of the Diseases which attend Dentition; and in Chap. XI. of the chemical Analysis of the Teeth.

Nature has provided us with two sets of teeth, one adapted to childhood, the other to adolescence, and designed to continue through the remainder of life. The first set are termed the temporary teeth, the other the permanent teeth. In a fœtus of about 4 months old, the rudiments of the teeth (which at this early period are soft or pulpy bodies) may be distinctly traced by the anatomist. In a fœtus of about 5 or 6 months, they begin to undergo a partial ossification. At the time of birth, the bodies of 20 teeth (called the milk teeth) are distinctly formed, namely, 4 incisores, 2 cuspidati, and 4 molares in each jaw. After birth, the teeth become too long to be contained within their sockets; hence they press those parts, the gums swell and inflame, absorption takes place, and the teeth rise above them and show themselves; and this happens sooner or later, according as a child is stout or weakly. They usually begin to appear about the 6th or 8th month, and continue coming out in succession between 2 or 3 years.

Such is the progress of the temporary teeth. With regard to the permanent teeth, they require a much longer term for their growth and perfection; being seldom less than 20 years, often much longer, in forming. They vary considerably from the temporary set, both in size and figure, and are in number 32, namely, 8 incisores, or cutting teeth, 4 cuspidati, or canine teeth, 8 bicuspides (so named by Mr. J. Hunter, but commonly called the first and second grinders), and 12 molares, or grinders. The last of the molares are called dentes sapientiæ.

The manner in which the teeth are formed from a soft pulpy substance into bodies of a boney hardness, is accurately described in the third Chapter, wherein the author differs on some points from J. Hunter; in particular, he expresses his surprise, that

that this excellent phyſiologiſt ſhould have conſidered the teeth as devoid of internal circulation, and deſtitute of the living principle. This opinion he very ſucceſsfully controverts.

We paſs over the fourth, fifth, and ſixth Chapters; and, from the ſeventh Chapter, which treats of the means by which irregularities of the teeth are remedied, we extract the following obſervations.

"The time to effect any material alteration in the teeth is before 13 or 14 years of age, and as much earlier as poſſible; for after that time, the ſockets of the teeth acquire a great degree of ſtrength; and the teeth are ſo fixed, that they cannot be moved without much difficulty. If the irregularity be left to a much later period, the difficulty increaſes, and frequently all attempts to produce an alteration are fruitleſs.

"To remove that irregularity which happens when the inciſores of the upper jaw are turned in, and thoſe of the under jaw ſhut before them, two objects muſt be accompliſhed; one, to apply a force, which ſhall act conſtantly upon the irregular tooth, and bring it forward; the other, to remove that obſtruction which the under teeth, by coming before the upper, always occaſion. The firſt of theſe objects may be obtained, by the application of an inſtrument adapted to the arch of the mouth; which, being attached to ſome ſtrong teeth on each ſide, will furniſh a fixed point in front, to which a ligature, previouſly faſtened on the irregular tooth, may be applied; and thus, by occaſionally renewing it, a conſtant preſſure is preſerved, and the tooth may be drawn forward. The ſecond object, that of removing the reſiſtance of the under teeth, muſt be attained by placing ſome intervening ſubſtance between the teeth of the upper and under jaws, ſo as to prevent them from completely cloſing, and be an obſtruction to the coming forwards of the irregular tooth."

For this purpoſe, the author has contrived an apparatus, which may be made either of gold or ſilver: a clear conception of which can only be obtained by conſulting the plates. By means of this contrivance, the teeth that grow in the irregular manner above-mentioned are (he ſays) uſually brought forwards in about a month or five weeks; and, as ſoon as they are ſo much advanced as to allow the under teeth to paſs on the inſide, one part of the apparatus (namely, the piece of ivory) may be removed, while the other part (namely, the bar) is retained for a few days, until the teeth are perfectly firm, which will prevent their ſubſequent receding. Where the irregularity has been ſuffered to continue too long, we muſt be contented (he obſerves) to leſſen the deformity as much as poſſible, by extracting the moſt irregular teeth.

Chap. VIII. of ſupernumerary Teeth. Chap. IX. of the Decay of the temporary Teeth. When they become carious,

and, by the pain which they occaſion, deprive children of their reſt, or render them incapable of maſticating their food ſufficiently, he adviſes their extraction.

In the tenth Chapter are conſidered the diſorders which attend dentition; ſuch as fever, cutaneous eruptions, diarrhœa, and convulſions; the treatment of all which he lays down, conformably with the general practice; premiſing, that where the paſſage of the teeth through the gums is tedious, the difficulty ſhould be obviated by lancing the gums.

In the laſt Chapter, we have a chemical analyſis of the teeth, by the author's friend, Mr. Pepys; from whoſe experiments it appears, that 100 parts of the enamel of teeth conſiſt of phoſphate of lime 78, carbonate of lime 6=84, water of compoſition and loſs 16=100. The bone or roots of the teeth yielded, in 100 grains, phoſphate of lime 58, carbonate of lime 4, gelatine 28=90, water of compoſition and loſs 10=100.

For the anatomical and phyſiological parts of this work, the foundation was long ſince laid, by J. Hunter. In the practical part, more room was left for new obſervations; and accordingly, in this part, ſeveral particulars have been noticed, eſpecially in regard to the irregularity of the teeth, which were either omitted or but ſlightly mentioned by that celebrated ſurgeon. In his turn, however, the author of the preſent treatiſe has paſſed over ſome affections of the permanent ſet of teeth, of which the deſcription and treatment are given in Mr. John Hunter's book.

The plates are neatly engraved.

ART. VI. *A Syſtem of Book-keeping, on a Plan entirely new. By W. Boardman.* 4to. 5s. Ormſkirk; and Seeley, London. 1802.

ART. VII. *Book-keeping improved; or a certain Method laid down and exemplified for the Detection and Prevention of Errors. By Philip Pullen.* 4to. 1l. 1s. Printed for the Author. 1803.

THE former of theſe works would, but for accidental circumſtances, have been noticed long ſince, as it is a work of conſiderable merit in this department. The high price of the latter, which is juſt publiſhed, induced us to take it under our immediate conſideration, in hopes of diſcovering, in its intrinſic

intrinſic merit, a compenſation for its want of bulk; but, upon examination, we found this to have been a vain expectation. The different character of theſe works is indeed ſtrongly marked; while one author ever has conciſeneſs in view, the other appears to think only of increaſing the labour of book-keeping to its *maximum*.

The method of ſingle entry, when purſued with care, is ſufficient for moſt of the purpoſes of commerce; but is attended with the inconveniency of having only two means of aſcertaining the accuracy of the accounts. The firſt is, that of calling over the ſeveral poſtings with the original daily entries, an operation in itſelf very liable to error. The ſecond method conſiſts in keeping two ſets of accounts; by the compariſon of the balances of which, any error may be diſcovered; it being very unlikely that errors of the ſame kind, and to the ſame amount, ſhould be committed in the ſame accounts.

To avoid, in ſome meaſure, theſe difficulties, the Italian method was invented; in which, by the introduction of artificial or fictitious accounts, exhibiting, at the ſame time, a view of the gain, loſs, or expences of the owner, no ſum is placed to the debit of any account, without an equal ſum being put on the credit ſide of ſome other account, and *vice verſa*. Hence it follows, that the total amount of all the debits in the ledger is equal to that of the credits; and further, that the ſeveral exceſſes on the debit are equal to thoſe on the credit. By this invention, therefore, a new mode of aſcertaining the accuracy of the poſtings was introduced, namely, by taking frequent trials of the general balance. As, however, theſe trials are attended with conſiderable trouble when the accounts are numerous, it behoves the accountant to conſider, whether this method, or that of keeping a double ſet of accounts, takes up the leaſt of his time and attention. He may then adopt whichever plan is moſt ſuitable to his buſineſs; either of them being a certain remedy againſt the ordinary miſtaking of ſums.

Jones (whoſe "Engliſh Syſtem of Book-keeping" we reviewed in our ninth volume, p. 568) endeavoured to give the method of ſingle entry ſome of the advantages ariſing from collecting the amount of the total debt or credit of the ledger, by introducing two additional columns in his day-book, one for each. The amounts of theſe columns were to agree with the quarterly addition on each ſide of his ledger: to effect this operation, however, he was obliged to mangle his accounts into no leſs than ten columns to each perſon; and, for want of room, to inſert only the date and ſum of money without any narration. His method is therefore only applicable to very ſimple affairs; but he carefully concealed the defects of his

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ſyſtem, and boaſted of its excellencies and advantages, depreciating the merits of the Italian method. His performance was uſhered into the world with ſo much arrogance, and affectation of myſtery, that it made much noiſe in the mercantile circles.

Wicks (of whoſe "Book-keeping Reformed" we gave ſome account in our tenth volume, p. 691) ſaw the advantages that might be made of theſe additional columns, and adapted them to the Italian journal. Not being himſelf in the habits of trade, he has not noticed one of the minor difficulties of book-keeping; that of diſtinguiſhing the debts a merchant contracts with a foreign correſpondent, in foreign money, from thoſe which the foreign merchant contracts with him in native money; and the neceſſity of not only keeping ſeparate accounts of each, but alſo of uſing two ſets of money-columns in the former, one for each ſpecies. In other reſpects, his work is a performance of conſiderable merit. One of his additional columns contains whatever is put on the debit ſide of real or artificial accounts, the other contains the credits of theſe accounts. Hence, as the articles on perſonal accounts, and no other, are omitted, the difference between the two columns is the floating balance of debts due to, or by, the owner. The trial-balance of Wicks may contain only perſonal accounts; and then the juſtneſs of the books is ſhown by comparing the difference of the ſides of the trial-balance, with the difference of the journal-columns, which differences ought to be equal. If, however, a general trial-balance is taken of all the accounts, then the total amount of the debt or credit of the ledger will agree with the amount of the waſte-book, which, in this caſe, muſt be kept, and the ſeveral entries added together.

The principal object of Mr. Boardman evidently is conciſeneſs; to this, every other conſideration is ſacrificed. We find in our daily experience, numerous inſtances of perſons, who are both expert and accurate in accounts, but who have great objection to the common Italian book-keeping, on account of the quantity of writing which that method requires. Such perſons will, in this work, find the means of attaining all the preciſion of the moſt regular method, without much labour, or the formalities which are uſually thought abſolutely neceſſary. The firſt part of Mr. Boardman's work contains an entire ſet of ſubſidiary books; namely, caſh, bill, invoice, ſales, and warehouſe-book; a waſte-book, in plain narrative ſtyle, is alſo prefixed, which may be uſed without the ſubſidiaries, or not. The caſh, invoice, and ſales-book, have nothing peculiar; but his bill-book is certainly an improvement

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on that commonly uſed by tradeſmen, and even by moſt merchants, being in fact an account of bills receivable (or payable) kept in a regular form, debtor and creditor. In his warehouſe-book, he not only keeps a ſimilar account of every ſpecies of goods, but he even ſubdivides each ſpecies according to the prime coſt. In lieu of cloſing theſe accounts by the profit or loſs, which appears without any further examination than the difference of their ſides, he propoſes to calculate the loſs or gain on the quantity ſold at each ſale-price, in order to correct any error in former calculations. This is certainly accurate; but in ſome buſineſſes would be impracticable, and in others ſo exceſſively troubleſome, that it would never repay the pains. A trial-balance of this book muſt be taken, whenever it is meant to cloſe the account of goods in the ledger; by this balance, for which an excellent form is given, he finds the total amount of both gain and loſs, each of which are to be carried diſtinctly into the ledger, to the reſpective ſides of the account of goods.

Two ſpecimens of a journal are given, of which we preſer the firſt; Mr. Boardman uſes only two money-columns in this book, one for the debtors, the other for the creditors; the amount of either of theſe columns is equal to the amount of the waſte-book for the ſame period. The ledger contains nothing peculiar; but we are ſorry to obſerve in it the uſual error, ſo ſeverely and juſtly expoſed by Mr. London, and which we have juſt noticed in ſpeaking of Wicks's Treatiſe. The form given for the trial-balance of this book is very accurate, yet we apprehend it would, in all caſes, be better to inſert the amount of the entries of each account ſeparately, when ſeveral accounts occur in the ſame folio.

A third ſpecimen of a journal follows, in which Mr. Boardman attempts to exhibit a plan, whereby a perſon may acquire a knowledge of his preſent neat eſtate, without any reference to the ledger. This plan is well conceived; it requires, however, a calculation of the profits and loſſes which have accrued on ſales made within the period: Mr. B.'s mode of finding theſe, by an examination of the warehouſe-book, although very ſimple, is, as we have ſtated above, too minute. For common purpoſes, a groſs eſtimate, which might be eaſily obtained by running over the ſales of each month, may well ſerve. At the end of the year, a new inventory being taken, the profit already ſtated to the account of goods might be amended according to circumſtances.

The plan for a retail dealer is ſomething ſimilar to the laſt, and liable to the ſame objection in practice. Mr. Boardman's method for a gentleman's accounts, affords an evident proof that

that he has formed a proper idea of the difference which exists between the several modes of accounting required in trade, and those of mere expenditure. A larger specimen is wanted, however, to enable persons not previously habituated to book-keeping, to practise it with success. Indeed the whole work is written for the use of those who are well acquainted with the usual modes, and who regulate their own affairs. Those persons will find, in Mr. Boardman's treatise, many excellent contractions and abbreviations of their labour.

There exists, however, a considerable difference between the information necessary to satisfy a person's own mind how his affairs stand, and the recording of those affairs for the information of others. Those, therefore, who employ professed artists, for the regulation of their accounts, ought to prefer the old method, although it is more prolix than is absolutely necessary: and, to these, Mr. Pullen's work, which we now proceed to examine, is more particularly addressed. This author, with less originality than any of the former, has used two additional columns in his journal, but makes no other use of them than to insert into one, the several particular sums which form the complex posts, and into the other, their aggregate amount: simple posts are carried out into both. By the correspondence of these, he verifies the addition of the sums carried into the accounts by the complex posts. A third additional column is also used by him, for reference to a book of accounts-current. To prevent errors, he uses two complete sets of accounts; one in what he calls the ledger, which contains, besides the date and sum, only the *riscontra* (or correspondent debtor or creditor); the other in an account-current book, differing from the ledger, in having only a plain narrative of the transaction, in lieu of the *riscontra*. In both these books, he refers back to the journal; but not, as is usual, to the correspondent accounts. To ascertain the accuracy of his postings, he takes a monthly trial-balance, of the amount posted to the debit and credit of the ledger-accounts during each month, and inserts it in a fourth book, under the new denomination of a partial balance.

His accounts vary little from the usual system. Stock and private affairs are changed to "Charles Edwards," the supposed owner; which, although different from the common form used in schools, is much in use. Merchandise account does not represent the goods in possession of the owner, but is used to signify the persons from whom the goods were bought. Charges of insurance are debtor for the stamped policies bought, and creditor for what are used. The examples he has given are very incomplete, and almost wholly taken from brokerage affairs. Entries which are complex in both terms,

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although condemned by the beſt authors, are uſed by him. Mr. Pullen advertiſes a new work on foreign monies, and yet, in both his books, "Henry Paſſmore, of Waterford, *my* account current," is kept in Engliſh money only. Of company accounts, uſually eſteemed the moſt difficult, he takes no notice.

From this ſuccinct expoſition of his work, we may eaſily form an opinion of its merit. To employ two checks, both ſufficiently tedious in real buſineſs, when either of them will anſwer the purpoſe, is ſurely labour in vain. Miſtakes which conſiſt merely in the erroneous poſition, or amount, of money, are all that theſe complicated proceſſes can poſſibly correct; but it is not theſe that form the difficulties of book-keeping, or that occaſion diſputes. While, therefore, Mr. Pullen beſtows all his labour upon trifles, he entirely forgets the concerns of real moment. It evidently appears, that he has only an empirical knowledge of the art he profeſſes, and is totally ignorant of the principles on which it is founded. What can be more abſurd, than to give a title to accounts of perſons, as if they related to things; or to accounts of things as if they related to the profits or expences of buſineſs? Notwithſtanding the high price of his work, (in which he has carefully followed Jones) we cannot diſcern in it one ſingle improvement; that of verifying the addition of the complex entries being too trifling to deſerve the name.

The printing and paper are both excellent; there are, however, ſeveral errors of the preſs; as, in p. 20, an for Jan; in p. 24, wew for new.

We recommend to Mr. Pullen, the peruſal of an Engliſh grammar before he ventures again in public; as, in his accounts-current, we obſerve that the uſe of the pronouns is ſtrangely confounded. Thus, we have in p. 30,

"Dr. Charles Bouchier, of Limerick.
Jan. 19. To paid *your* order to bearer.
To *your* bill to J. Pim and Co. 21 *dd* 24 Dec.
To paid *him* in perſon."

ART. VIII. *The Argonautics of Apollonius Rhodius, tranſlated into Engliſh Verſe. With Notes, critical, hiſtorical, and explanatory, and Diſſertations. By William Preſton, Eſq. M. R. I. A. In Three Volumes.* 12mo. 10s. 6d. Dublin, printed for the Author. 1803.

IN the arduous, but laudable taſk of tranſlating the ancient poets into modern verſe, the Italians have generally borne away the palm from other nations. Their verſions of Homer by Salvini

vini and Ceſarotti, of Virgil by Annibal Caro and Bondi, of Horace by Maffei, of Ovid's Metamorphoſes by Anguillara*, have been eſteemed almoſt equal to the originals. The French, on the contrary, whoſe language is as averſe to poetry, as the Italian is congenial to it, have nearly relinquiſhed the undertaking in deſpair; and the recent Georgics of the Abbé de Lille afford almoſt as a ſolitary inſtance of any great ſucceſs in ſuch a taſk. In England it has long been an object of earneſt endeavour to form a complete body of tranſlated claſſic poets; and our moſt illuſtrious authors have not diſdained to employ their talents for this purpoſe. We conſider it, therefore, as perfectly in order, when a writer, who has by original productions already achieved the title of poet, appears as the tranſlator of a Greek or Roman claſſic; nor will it often happen, we conceive, that great excellence in tranſlating poetry ſhall be attained, unleſs the original power reſides alſo in the perſon who undertakes it. The preſent tranſlator, Mr. Preſton, has long eſtabliſhed his claim to that qualification; and whoever will turn back to our ſixth volume (p. 155–160)† will ſee even there abundant proof of this aſſertion. His Apollonius comes forward, therefore, with a legitimate claim to an attention, which we ſhall with pleaſure beſtow upon it.

Yet we cannot enter upon our taſk without regretting the manner in which ſo laudable an undertaking is preſented to the public. We are no friends to what he properly ſtyles typographical luxury and parade, and can readily give credit to an author for reſting his "claim to attention, merely on the matter which his volumes compriſe, without reſorting to the adventitious merit of preſenting the admirers of fine printing with a handſome library book." But this book goes too far into the contrary extreme; the pages are ſmall and crowded, and, what is much worſe, the typographical errors, in the parts where Latin or Greek quotations occur, are ſo many and ſo groſs, as to afford a ſpecimen of incorrectneſs beyond, we believe, all former example. The humble and contracted form of the work is accounted for by the author, in very modeſt terms, from the circumſtance of his being obliged to publiſh it at his own riſque, and finding it expedient, on that account, to conſult œconomy in the publication. But ſurely,

* This is in *ottava rima*, the heroic ſtanza of the Italians, and is eſteemed to approach more nearly to the verſification of Arioſto than any other work.

† We regret that his third volume of Poems, then promiſed, has never yet appeared. At leaſt, we believe not.

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though Dublin could not furniſh a publiſher willing to undertake it in a proper ſtyle, London might have ſupplied the deficiency; and, even in the abſence of the author, a good printer here would, we will venture to ſay, have done more juſtice to his work, in point of correctneſs, than it has met with in its native city. One very great inconvenience pervades the whole ſecond volume: which is, that neither any running title diſtinguiſhes to which book the notes belong, nor are the notes numbered; ſo that, except in the regular and ſtraight-forward peruſal of them with the text, it is extremely difficult to find a remark belonging to any particular paſſage. Let us hope that, under all diſadvantages, this firſt edition will meet with ſuch encouragement as to be reprinted ſpeedily in a better form, and with more correctneſs. Nor could we think that Engliſh publiſher imprudent, who ſhould immediately agree with the author for paying the expences of the firſt, and preparing a proper ſecond edition. The name of Mr. P. has ſurely ſufficient celebrity here to authorize ſuch a ſtep, and we have little doubt that the accounts given of it in our public journals, will be ſuch as to afford additional encouragement.

Mr. Preſton, we conceive, has alſo been much miſled as to the prevalent faſhion of placing notes. He has been told, it ſeems, that printing them at the bottom of the page is ſo much diſuſed, that it would appear "an ungracious affectation of ſingularity, were he to contend for a diſpoſition generally exploded." P. xxxiii. This is ſo very far from being the caſe, that it has become a cuſtom rather to load the bottom of each page with a redundant quantity of notes; with the mere exception of thoſe books which are publiſhed for ſplendour and beauty, objects confeſſedly relinquiſhed here. Let us hope then that, when he reprints his Argonautics, he will do, what it is always beſt for a ſenſible author to do, "conſult his own judgment, and ſubjoin the notes incidental to the tranſlation, at the bottom of each page." Let him look at the Purſuits of Literature; at Darwin's Botanic Garden, reprinted in 8vo. not without a view to elegance; at Dante, tranſlated by his ingenious countryman Mr. Boyd, and many other recent works, and he will give up the unneceſſary fear of introducing his notes in their proper places, and no longer ſuffer his better taſte and ſenſe to be over-ruled by an ignorant publiſher.

Among the cauſes which induced Mr. P. to undertake the preſent work, there is one connected with the actual ſtate of his country, and expreſſed with ſo much feeling and beauty in his Preface, that we cannot forbear to copy it. There ſeems, at the latter end of the paſſage, to be ſome foreboding of yet further

further evils; but whether they are thoſe which have been already developed, or ſtill more, we are not able to ſay.

" A conſideration which diſpoſed the author to employ himſelf in the preſent tranſlation may alſo induce ſome readers to beſtow a little time on the peruſal. This undertaking was commenced in a ſeaſon of gloom and turbulence, amidſt a variety of alarming phantaſms and fearful apprehenſions. The diſmal proſpect has in ſome meaſure cleared up; yet ſtill the horizon of ſocial ſympathy is contracting itſelf, and blackening into clouds and heavy darkneſs. Happy is he, who can find within his cloſet a temporary retreat from the tumult and the ſorrows of the buſy crowd, and loſe himſelf in literary amuſements and unambitious cares. This is an innocent and moral reſource, which does not baniſh feeling, or unfit the mind for exertion; it is a reſource which is not a ſatire on the individual who adopts it, or an inſult on the ſufferings, and the apprehenſions, of the many who ſuffer around him. The Muſes come, like divine comforters, to the reſtleſs couch of pain, privation, and deſpondency; not with the obtruſive declamation of a vain philoſophy; not with the ſtale profeſſions of conſolation, which ever fail of their end; but with ſoothing variations from painful and immediate cares, with welcome abſtractions from importunate and beſieging thoughts, with innocent reſources, and alleviating arts, that inſenſibly ſteal us from ourſelves. Hard, indeed, it is to obtain that reſpite. The unpleaſing ſenſe of what we are, and what we may be, will ſtill recur. The patriotic feelings, that remind us we have a country, become ſources of fear. All the dear ſurrounding pledges, which, to the moral man, in times of perfect ſerenity, are ſources of the moſt pure and virtuous delight, in times of doubt and diſmay, are armed with poniards, to ſtab the feeling heart.—But I know that I ſhall too frequently have occaſion to requeſt the indulgence of my reader.—Let me not treſpaſs on his patience unneceſſarily, and at the very threſhold, by a querulous diſplay of the feelings and forebodings of an individual. Many cannot underſtand me, and thoſe who can, feel too much already." P. xxxiv.

This work, in its preſent form, is thus diſpoſed. The firſt volume, after a ſenſible and inſtructive Preface, contains the whole tranſlation of the Argonautics. The ſecond is entirely occupied by the notes, which, though copious, are not, in our opinion, too much ſo to meet the appetite of the public for information ſo eaſily conveyed; and they are the more worthy of attention becauſe, as the author tells us, they contain " large extracts from the Greek Scholia," which are certainly acknowledged by the learned, to be among the moſt valuable remains of that ſpecies of illuſtration. Of theſe Scholia, he has given a very correct account in p. xxvi of his Preface. To theſe he profeſſes to have added a " variety of hints, critical, hiſtorical, and explanatory, ſome few of them extracted from thoſe of Fawkes, and the Oxford editor, but for the moſt part wholly new." The third volume conſiſts of ſeveral Eſſays, or Diſſertations, on very intereſting ſubjects, and executed

cuted with great taſte, ingenuity, and learning; and preceded by two tranſlations illuſtrative of the Poem, the one an account of the Argonautic Expedition, tranſlated from Apollodorus; the other a proſe tranſlation of part of the Argonautics of Onomacritus, written under the name of Orpheus. The Eſſays are ſeven in number. 1. On the Life of Apollonius Rhodius. 2. On the Argonautic Expedition. 3. On the Manners of the Heroic Ages, conſidered with a reference to Poetry. 4. On the poetical Character of Apollonius. 5. Apollonius compared with Virgil. 6. On the Geography of Apollonius Rhodius. 7. On the Heſperides and their Gardens. Theſe Eſſays will not fail to attract and pleaſe thoſe readers who have a taſte for elegant learning; and as they may be properly conſidered as introductory to the work, we ſhall analyſe them before we proceed to the tranſlation and notes.

The time appears to be well choſen for bringing forward Apollonius Rhodius to the notice of Engliſh readers. For ſeveral years paſt, the original poet has received an increaſed attention from the learned. Within our memory, he has been twice publiſhed at Oxford, in 4to. 1777, and in 8vo. 1779. Brunck then gave an edition at Straſbourg in 1780, in which he found great fault with the Oxford edition, and with Hoelzlinus, the preceding editor, but himſelf left many things undone which every claſſical reader would naturally have wiſhed: particularly in omitting the Scholia. A more elaborate editor, in ſome reſpects, and at the ſame time a tranſlator, was Cardinal Fiangini, whoſe edition appeared at Rome in 1794, in two volumes, 4to. with an Italian verſion, as literal as he could make it, and twenty plates, from antique coins and ſculptures, illuſtrative of the ſubject. To this edition is now added, a ſet of capital deſigns in outline, by Flaxman, ſimilar to thoſe ſince drawn by him for Homer. Laſtly, this poet has employed the care of that excellent editor, Beck, who has given a firſt volume (1797, 8vo.) containing the whole text of Apollonius, with a corrected Latin verſion, and an *Index Verborum;* and promiſes a ſecond volume, for which we anxiouſly look, where he is to give the Scholia corrected, augmented, and arranged, and a new commentary, both critical and mythological. So much care beſtowed upon one author, within ſuch a ſpace, ſpeaks ſtrongly by implication for the value of his work; nor ſhould it be forgotten, that in the ſame period the Argonautics have been thrice tranſlated. Twice in Engliſh, by Fawkes and by E. B. Greene, and once in German Hexameters by Bodmer; beſides the Italian verſion above-mentioned. The two Engliſh tranſlations might be ſuppoſed to preclude the neceſſity of the preſent; but Mr. Preſton, though he modeſtly declines any

attempt

attempt to criticize his predeceſſors, has certainly a clear right to enter the liſts with them, and has done much to draw the public attention to his author, by the Diſſertations which we are now to analyſe.

The volume of Diſſertations, though the third in place, is, without doubt, the firſt in natural order, ſince every intelligent reader will be deſirous to obtain the information it conveys, before he proceeds to the poem; and many will want, perhaps, the commendation there beſtowed upon Apollonius, to incite them to the peruſal of his work. Of the tranſlations with which it opens we ſhall ſay little, except that they are introduced with great propriety. The extract from Apollodorus may ſerve as a general argument to the poem, with ſome variations and additions. It begins at the 16th §. of chap. ix. in the firſt book of Apollodorus, and continues to the end of the book. The learned reader will do well to turn, at the ſame time, to the valuable notes of Heyne on the ſame paſſage. The tranſlation from the Orphean Argonautics, is given for the ſake of ſhowing a different account of the Return of the Argonauts, a ſubject which is illuſtrated alſo by Heyne from various other authors, in his note on the 24th ſection of the above-cited chapter of Apollodorus.

We now turn to the Eſſays or Diſſertations. 1. The firſt, on the Life and Writings of Apollonius Rhodius, will be found, by every reader, intereſting and agreeable. The account of the literary ſplendour of the Court of the Ptolemies, in the time of Apollonius, will be particularly captivating to every author.

"In ſuch a foſtering ſeminary of talent, where a long ſucceſſion of munificent and learned princes formed in their court an academy for arts and literature, for genius and philoſophy, the propenſities of the ſovereign impreſt a literary ſtile, a tone of cultivation, not only on the court, but on the people at large; and prepared, on the confines of Lybia, a refinement and perfection of the Greek language, that equalled the happieſt efforts of Athens herſelf, and produced a Ptolemaic age, which, though leſs known and celebrated, at leaſt in modern times, may deſerve to be placed in competition with the Auguſtan age of Rome. Boundleſs wealth, to reward merit, attracted competitors from every ſide, ambitious of obtaining the ſmile of royalty. No doubt, the great, the rich, and powerful of the court, who always imitate the propenſities of the ſovereign, wiſhed to diſtinguiſh themſelves, by an encouragement of genius and learning, according to the faſhion of the day.—Thus the poet found himſelf a perſonage of importance. He was cultivated, careſſed, encouraged, and rewarded. Splendour, magnificence, wealth, and elegant luxury ſhone on every ſide to elevate his fancy. All the means of cultivating the underſtanding were rendered generally acceſſible to all, in the magnificent repoſitory of the ſovereign; where were not only books, but every inſtrument and object of ſcience which the world then knew. To this

this were added philoſophical converſe, elegant ſociety, the emulation of genius and talent, the colliſion of mind, all tending to mature and digeſt the underſtanding. Here was collected the ſplendor of beauty with that of pomp and opulence. The taſte and elegance of Greece were blended with the ſtate and magnificence of Aſia. Every delight of ſenſe, every poſſible indulgence of the fancy, tended to fill the mind with images of delight. The ear was perpetually filled with the raviſhing ſounds of exquiſite harmony; the eyes were inceſſantly gratified with the ſurrounding forms of animate and inanimate beauty.—What a ſituation for a poet! wrapt in the boſom of eaſe and indulgence; exempt from any toil, but that which the inſpiration of his muſe demanded; freed from the intruſion of every care, excepting that of his reputation; exempt from every ſource of vexation, except thoſe created by the irritability of talent, the wakeful jealouſy of genius and ſenſibility, and the reſtleſs impatience of competition. The exertions of genius were facilitated, by an eaſy acceſs to an admirable library and muſeum: and, at the ſame time, called out by a variety of contending and powerful motives and intereſts.

"At the court of Alexandria, avarice was attracted and ſatiated to its utmoſt wiſh, by the noble rewards which the bounteous hand of royalty ſhowered on merit. The pride and conſciouſneſs of genius were ſtimulated to exertion by competition, in which talent ſtrove to ſurpaſs itſelf. The mind diſplayed powers which ſhe did not imagine ſhe poſſeſt, and arrived at heights which ſhe thought herſelf incapable of attaining. Vanity was flattered, by the hope of attracting the ſmiles, and deſerving the applauſe, of the fair and young, of the great and the brave, of the rich and the noble, of the learned and the wiſe, of the elegant and the accompliſhed,—in fine, of every thing that the known world could then produce, of amiable, brilliant, and reſpectable.—The ambitious ſpirit marked, with graver eyes, the predilection of the ſovereign for the faculties and endowments which he poſſeſt; and anticipated, from the favour and encouragement of a diſcerning monarch, a certain road to eminence, in the diſplay of genius, the exertions of art, and the reſearches of ſcience.

"The literary ſtile of converſation that prevailed at the court of the Ptolemies, and the amenity and condeſcenſion of thoſe accompliſhed princes, may be collected from a ſtory, which is related of Ptolemy Soter, the firſt of the dynaſty. This prince was commonly ſuppoſed to be of mean deſcent.—One day, after he heard, for a long time, a vain and trifling grammarian, who made a diſplay of his ſkill in antiquities,—he interrupted the torrent of learning with a queſtion—"Since you are ſo well verſed in the learning of the ancients, tell me, without heſitation, O grammarian, who was the father of Peleus?"—The grammarian anſwered with promptitude—"Tell me firſt, O king, if you can, who was the father of Lagus?"—This anſwer produced no ſmall indignation in the courtiers; but Ptolemy, applauding the humour, and pleaſed with the freedom of the grammarian, told them, that if it was beneath the dignity of a king to bear a jeſt, it ſtill leſs became him to jeſt on his ſubject.

"Such was the happy ſituation of the arts and letters at the court of Alexandria:—a ſituation, how different from that in which they

have

have been too generally found, in times both ancient and modern! Melancholy, indeed, is the hiſtory of arts and ſciences in this reſpect. It is hardly any thing but a martyrology, filled with the lamentations and mournful deſtinies of the victims of genius; which might lead us to think, that there is an almoſt general conſpiracy, a confederacy of ingratitude among men, which has diſpoſed them to condemn their benefactors to the dark and doubtful recompence of poſthumous fame; and to repay the exertions of thoſe, who have preſumptuouſly attempted to delight, inſtruct, or reform the world, with diſcouragement in every form, with envy and vexation, with pain, with poverty, and with neglect. It was the fortune of Apollonius the Rhodian, as he has been generally ſtiled, to be born in a country and an age thus auſpicious to men of letters." Vol. iii. p. 43.

The account of the quarrel between Apollonius and his maſter Callimachus is alſo amuſing, as are the conjectures reſpecting the *Ibis* of the latter, which is expreſsly ſaid by Suidas to have been written againſt Apollonius. Celebrated as this Poem was among the ancients, there is hardly any among the various works of Callimachus, of which ſo very little remains*; a fate neither unuſual nor unſuitable to abuſive poems.

2. The Eſſay on the Argonautic Expedition collects much information that is uſeful on that famous ſubject; and Mr. Preſton agrees decidedly with Heyne†, Geſner, and the great majority of the learned, who ſuppoſes the whole to have had a foundation in hiſtory; rather than with Mr. Bryant, who would reduce it to mere allegory.

3. This Eſſay, on the State of Society and Manners in the Heroic Ages, is written with the feelings of a poet, and conſequently cannot want attractions. It particularly explains that ſimilarity of ſituation, between Apollonius and Virgil, which has led to a repreſentation of nature in both, very diſſimilar to the grand ſimplicity of Homer, and very congenial to each other. The paſſion of love, in particular, had obtained an importance in their days, which belonged not to it in the time of the old Bard of Greece, and naturally led Virgil to the Alexandrine poet, as a model on that ſubject, rather than any elder writer. Mr. Preſton's obſervations on the effects of the *Cruſades*, in this particular point, is well worthy of notice.

"Be the origin and the effects of this inſtitution what they may, by introducing a refinement of manners aud a ſpirit of courteſy, it gave occaſion to a more marked and reſpectful deference for the fair ſex; from which, in time, originated amorous gallantry, uniting love with

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* See Bentley's Fragments of Callimachus, No. xcix.

† Notæ ad Apollod. T. ii. p. 196.

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the image of war in tilts and tournaments—the predominance of love, as a general ruling paſſion—the cultivation of erotic poetry, as a diſtinct branch of literary compoſition." P. 125.

4. In diſcuſſing the Genius and Character of his author, Apollonius, Mr. Preſton is of courſe led to exalt him much more highly than it has been uſual to rate his poetical merit; and we confeſs, that he has nearly perſuaded us to adopt his opinion. The tranſient manner in which he is mentioned by Longinus, who calls him, indeed, ἄπτωτος (or one who commits no faults), but places him at a vaſt diſtance from Homer; and the very cold ſentence paſſed upon him by Quintilian*, have injured his fame with the learned world. On the other hand, the ſelection of his poem by Virgil, as a frequent model for imitation, affords a powerful inference in his favour. He was imitated alſo by Valerius Flaccus; and ſo doubtful is the opinion even of critics, that ſome give it clearly in favour of the Greek, and others of the Latin poet; among whom, Harles is the moſt deciſive†. Let Mr. Preſton's Eſſay, however, be carefully peruſed, with reference to the paſſages cited in it; and we are much miſtaken, if the dogmatical ſentence is not reverſed by almoſt every reader.

5. The fifth Eſſay takes up a regular compariſon between Apollonius and Virgil, and points out many features of ſimilarity which have not generally been obſerved. The following paſſage deſerves to be cited, for its correct feeling of the merits of Virgil, as well as for the compariſon of Apollonius, with which it concludes.

"Among the principal perfections of Virgil's poetry, we have already noted the clearneſs of his conceptions, his graphical talent, his ſkill in ſelecting and combining circumſtances, and his luminous diſplay of images, incidents, and emotions.—Much of this graphical talent depends on the excellence of his poetical diction; the beauty, the elegance, and majeſty of which, are unequalled. We find in him a curious felicity, the offspring of united genius to conceive and expreſs happily; and taſte and induſtry to refine and beautify afterwards, by repeated touches of patient correctneſs. In this happy combination of thought and expreſſion conſiſt the elegance and force which may be felt, but cannot well be deſcribed;—the balmy eſſence of beauty and grace, too volatile to be transfuſed, too ſubtle to be fixed or analyſed, by which we are ſtruck, we are charmed, we ſcarce know how.—Hence reſult the uncommon charms of picturesque language,—the thoughts that breathe, and words that burn, while an epithet is a com-

* Geſner doubts whether he means Apollonius Rhodius.
† Introd. in Ling. Græc. p. 278.

plete picture, a ſingle expreſſion, a word, is tantamount*, in force, to a whole ſentence. From his ſupereminence in theſe perfections, Virgil becomes an author moſt difficult to tranſlate or imitate; and the ſame may be ſaid of Apollonius. It is next to impoſſible to transfer into another language that exquiſite poetical colouring, thoſe graces which ſeem to be inimitable hues.—What tints, what art of the painter, can fully imitate the delightful carnation of nature, where the pure and eloquent blood ſpeaks in the cheek?—Many great and illuſtrious painters have ariſen—the hand only of Titian could rival nature in this reſpect.

" Yet, even here, we muſt, in great meaſure, withhold from Virgil the palm of originality. In his diction, as well as in his other excellencies, he is very much the child of imitation. It muſt be owned, however, that in what he has borrowed from preceding poets, he diſplays a taſte and judgment which claim a praiſe nearly equal to that of original invention. Apollonius, the favourite poet of Virgil, was his great maſter, in elaborate correctneſs, and in pictureſque and poetic diction." P. 228.

We ſhould willingly add what he ſays, in the next place, reſpecting Homer, Apollonius, and Virgil; but that we cannot ſo far extend our account. The whole Eſſay is addreſſed rather to the learned than the common reader, but has much ingenuity and merit.

The two remaining Eſſays are ſhort; the ſixth, on the Geography of Apollonius, is very neceſſary to the right comprehenſion of the poet, particularly the return of his heroes; and the ſeventh, on the Gardens of the Heſperides, affords a very pleaſing illuſtration of a particular part of the Argonautics. Theſe Eſſays, beſides doing honour to the learning and ingenuity of the writer, muſt tend to make Apollonius more known, and his poetical character more conſidered. In our next Review, we ſhall more particularly examine the tranſlation itſelf, with the accompanying notes, and thus conclude our account of the work.

(To be concluded in our next.)

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* *Tantamount* is an awkward word; but we ſee with more regret ſome ſtill leſs authorized words, ſuch as *germs*, p. 124; *verbiage*, p. 130; *recherchée*, pp. 159 and 230, an unneceſſary French term; *role*, the ſame, p. 217; and other inſtances. Mr. Preſton is too good a writer to be allowed to diſfigure his Engliſh.

ART. IX. *A Commercial Dictionary: containing the preſent State of Mercantile Law, Practice, and Cuſtom. Intended for the Uſe of the Cabinet, the Counting-Houſe, and the Library. By Joſhua Montefiore, Author of Commercial Precedents, &c. &c.* 4to. 2l. 2s. to Subſcribers; 2l. 12s. 6d. to Non-Subſcribers. London, printed for the Author. 1803.

IN a nation which derives ſo much of its importance from commerce, every publication relating to mercantile affairs excites conſiderable intereſt. The merit of Mr. Montefiore's former book, "Commercial Precedents," being generally acknowledged, ſecured a favourable reception to the preſent work. It muſt however be allowed, that the preſent is by no means equal to his former publication. As a repertory of commercial law, it may be of conſiderable uſe; in the other departments of mercantile knowledge, it is very defective; while, at the ſame time, it contains many articles which relate only indirectly to commerce. Mr. Montefiore does not appear to have duly weighed the extent of knowledge required in a general commercial dictionary; or to have appreciated, with ſufficient exactneſs, the difference between mercantile law, and the other branches of commercial knowledge, which, although related to it, are ſtill perfectly diſtinct. This will plainly appear from the following obſervations.

In a preliminary Eſſay, he gives a hiſtorical ſketch of the growth of commerce in Great Britain. This is, as he juſtly ſtyles it, "a rapid ſurvey," being, by no means, ſufficient to enable us to form a diſtinct idea of the ſeveral ſteps by which the trade of this country has attained its preſent ſtate.

That portion of the laws of Great Britain which relates to mercantile affairs, is profeſſedly the principal object of the work; and has, of courſe, engroſſed a large ſhare of Mr. Montefiore's attention. As this ſubject has of late received much illuſtration (ſeveral treatiſes having been profeſſedly written on different parts of commercial law) the articles that relate to it appear to much advantage among the others. The laws of bills of exchange and promiſſory notes, of arbitrations, bankruptcies, and agencies, as well as the regulations to which the legiſlature has thought fit to ſubject the importation or exportation of commodities, are minutely and copiouſly detailed. We cannot do better than give a ſpecimen of one of theſe articles, which our limits oblige us to chooſe for its brevity.

" AUTHORITY is a delegated power, by which one perſon authorizes another to act generally or ſpecially in his name; and by whoſe acts, where the authority is ſtrictly purſued, the party delegating ſuch power will be bound. An authority may be given either verbally or in writing, but the latter is the moſt uſual and regular.

" If the perſon who undertakes for another have no authority, he is guilty of fraud, and the party undertaking ought to be perſonally liable; but where ſuch authority is given, it is only acting for another; like the caſe of a factor or broker acting for their principals, who were never held to be liable perſonally. But where one undertakes for another, under an authority, he muſt, in order to protect himſelf from being perſonally bound by ſuch undertaking, ſtrictly purſue his authority.

" Wherever there is a general authority coupled with an intereſt, that authority may be executed by attorney. But if the attorney execute it contrary to the effect of his authority, this is utterly void; and if he execute his authority, and go beyond the limits of his warrant, it is void for that part only wherein he exceeds his authority.

" Where one is delegated to act for another, he muſt not uſe his own name only, but the name alſo of the perſon who gave the authority, 9 Rep. 76. So on the execution of a deed, the agent ſhould ſign the name of the principal coupled with his own.

" A perſon is not bound to accept of a conveyance executed under a power of attorney. 1 *Eſp.* 115.

" Although it is a rule that every authority ſhall be countermandable, and determined by the death of him that gives it; yet when an intereſt is coupled with an authority, it cannot then be countermanded or determined. *Dyer*, 190.

" Where an authority is given by law, it muſt be ſtrictly purſued; and if a perſon acting under ſuch authority exceeds it, he will be liable to an action for the exceſs.

" A power granted to ſeveral perſons may be executed by the majority of them. *Withnell* v. *Gartham*, 6 T. R. 388.

" On the diſſolution of a partnerſhip between A, B, and C, a power given to A, to receive all debts owing to, and to pay all thoſe owing by the late partnerſhip, will not authorize him to indorſe a bill of exchange in the name of the partnerſhip, though drawn by him in that name, and accepted by a debtor to the partnerſhip after the diſſolution, ſo that the indorſee cannot maintain an action on the bill againſt A, B, and C, as partners. *Kilgour* and *Finlayſon*, *Galbreath* and *Harper*, 1 *H. B.* 155. See *Agent*, *Bills of Exchange*, *Broker*, *Factor*, *Power*."

Next to mercantile law, properly ſo called, the laws relating to marine affairs, as thoſe of ſhipping, inſurance, loans upon bottomry or reſpondentia, are the parts moſt accurately diſcuſſed by Mr. Monteſiore. Theſe two portions of law are certainly intimately related, but they are here intermixed with other articles which belong to the rights of individuals in general, and have but a ſlight connection with mercantile affairs.

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Of the latter kind are, adminiſtrator, bail, courts, deed, defamation, defeaſance, diſtreſs, evidence, executors, habeas corpus, judgment, jury, legacies, libels, maintenance, mines (a very defective article), neceſſity, nuiſance, offence, office, outlawry, pardons, perſonate, priſons, property, recaption, trover, verdict, will and teſtament, witneſs, and ſeveral others of leſs extent.

The above relate excluſively to the law of England; but the ſame obſervation may be made reſpecting the articles, ambaſſador, foreign courts, foreign ſtate, government, law of nations, meſſengers, ſtate, neutrality, peace, ſafe-conducts and paſſports, treaties, war. Theſe are certainly ſuperfluous in a work of this kind. They relate to all conditions of mankind, and affect the landed proprietor, or the cottager, as well as the merchant. They merit, however, the attention of thoſe any way concerned in them, as they appear to be carefully extracted from the beſt authorities.

To the theory of commerce, although a moſt important ſubject, Mr. Montefiore has been leſs attentive; we find, however, a few good articles on this ſubject; and extract the following as one of the beſt. But in this he has been led, from local circumſtances, to confound value of account, or the common meaſure of value, with the value of coin. The firſt is of a fixed and immutable nature; the other variable, at the pleaſure of the government. In England, of late, the current coin does, for the moſt part, bear a fixed value in account; but, in ſome foreign countries, this value varies every day, according to the plenty or ſcarcity of each particular ſpecies, and the wants, or ſpeculations, of individuals.

"VALUE has two different meanings. It ſometimes expreſſes the utility of an object, and ſometimes the power of purchaſing other goods with it. The firſt may be called value in uſe, the other value in exchange. The value in uſe may be very great, when the value in exchange is little or nothing. Water, for inſtance, is of great value in uſe, and of almoſt none in exchange. A diamond or a pearl has a great value in exchange, but very little in uſe.

"Value in uſe is a mere *ſimple* effect, ariſing from the nature of an object, and its being more or leſs conducive to the neceſſities, the comforts, or enjoyments of men. The other value is of a compound nature, compoſed of the value in uſe, and the labour neceſſary to procure the object in queſtion. Values are meaſured by money, which has become a common ſtandard of compariſon for all different commodities. The value of this common ſtandard meaſure is itſelf rather value of exchange than of uſe; for the precious metals are of leſs utility than iron, braſs, and ſteel, which have, in compariſon, a ſmall value in exchange.

"In addition to theſe two ſpecies of permanent value, there is to be taken into account, a floating or changeable value, which ariſes from

from circumſtances, from the value in uſe, and the difficulty of obtaining the quantity neceſſary. The value in exchange then riſes, independent of any other cauſes but theſe two. All articles that have a great value in uſe are liable, more or leſs, to theſe variations of value in exchange. Corn and butchers' meat are moſt liable to theſe variations; but even water, on particular occaſions, has been exchanged for its weight in ſilver, and a pound of bread for its weight in gold. In a commercial ſenſe, the expence of producing an object ſettles its value in exchange; and where the value in uſe is not of that degree that procures for an article the appellation of an article of neceſſity, values find their level; but they do not always do ſo with objects which have a great value in uſe. See *Maximum, Money.*"

Both here and elſewhere, the author appears partial to the eſtabliſhment of a maximum, in articles of the firſt neceſſity; attributing the ill effects which followed the introduction of a ſimilar law in France, to other cauſes. A maximum upon proviſions bears, to the inhabitants of towns, an impoſing aſpect at firſt view; but, on a cloſer examination, the appearance is much altered. It might at firſt be conceived, that the ſimple ſtate of the diſpute was, whether the profits of the agriculturiſt ſhould be diminiſhed, in order to enable the townſman to live better, at the ſame expence. The effects, however, of this policy are ſo extremely injurious to the public welfare, that its reaction upon the towns is of more detriment to the œconomy of individuals, than can be compenſated by the benefits ariſing from it in the firſt inſtance.

Although, by means of a maximum, the inhabitants may pay leſs for the proviſions they conſume, their expences will, in the end, be much greater. Government muſt of courſe be obliged to pay the charges of bringing the greateſt part of the proviſions to market, or ſupply the cities by requiſitions from the ſurrounding country. Of this we have ample experience in the Roman empire. Rome was obliged to be proviſioned by government; and the caſe is, to this day, the ſame in the Eaſtern empire; the neighbouring villages being unable to furniſh the neceſſary ſupplies, and the price, calculated only for them, not allowing diſtant farmers to ſupply the market at a heavy expence of carriage.

A maximum, as experience ſhows, muſt ever be a predisposing cauſe of famine; both from the diſcouragement it throws upon huſbandry, and the waſte it occaſions in expenditure. The ancient Roman laws on this ſubject, which the Ottoman dynaſty has not abrogated, are probably the principal cauſe of the preſent inferiority of the countries under its dominion; although theſe provinces, before they were conquered by the Romans, were extremely productive. This decline has indeed been attempted to be explained otherwiſe.

wiſe. Enthuſiaſts in religion, or in politics, have attributed it to the ſpirit of the Mahometan religion, or to the deſpotiſm of the government: that neither of theſe is the true cauſe, ſeems evident; becauſe this alteration is not to be found in the other countries which have adopted that religion, or which ſtill retain the ancient form of government. Spain alſo, which has adopted the ſame policy, affords another example of its bad effects.

Mr. Monteſiore does not ſeem conſiſtent on this ſubject, and appears to be too much influenced by local circumſtances, and his own habits of life. In treating of intereſt, he offers many arguments againſt the maximum which is here adopted with reſpect to it. A limitation of profit is, in this peculiar caſe, beneficial to the ſtate; not only by enabling the government to borrow on reaſonable terms, but alſo by forcing monied men into active lines of life, in order to make a greater profit on their capitals. It can only be hurtful to individuals, by rendering it difficult for them to procure the loan of ſmall ſums, otherwiſe than upon pawns, or other privileged contracts. A kind of libration exiſts in theſe affairs; decreaſing the profit on commodities, and encreaſing that on money, muſt have the effect of depreſſing the active energies of a nation, and thus cauſe it to decline; while, on the other hand, its proſperity depends in great meaſure on a contrary proceeding.

Commercial geography comes next in order, as to the attention Mr. Monteſiore has beſtowed on the various ſubjects of which he treats. The articles that relate to it are very unequal, nor can we ſay that we are perfectly ſatisfied with any of them. That of Ruſſia, extracted from the memoir of Profeſſor Petri, of Erfurt, is certainly the moſt complete. It wants, however, the whole detail of the commercial uſages of the country, which is a general defect in all the geographical articles. This defect is the more obvious, from the relation it bears to the main object of the work, which, in our opinion, ſhould have led Mr. Monteſiore to have enlarged upon that point. The uſances at which bills of exchange are drawn, all crowded into one ſingle article, are almoſt the only foreign cuſtoms he has noticed.

The Bank, and ſeveral others of the incorporated companies of Great Britain, meet with attention from Mr. M. although he has by no means exhauſted the ſubject. The principal banks of Europe are alſo noticed; but of the foreign trading companies he ſcarcely ſpeaks: yet ſeveral of theſe companies, from the ſingularities of their formation, or other cauſes, are worthy of particular notice.

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The laws which relate to the cuſtoms and exciſe, are detailed at conſiderable length, but no account is given of the duties charged upon the commodities, which to moſt perſons will appear a great deficiency. Foreign writers on commerce, have not only given the duties chargeable on goods at the place for which they wrote, but alſo quoted the uſual limits of their prices. Mr. Monteſiore pretends to explain the manner of paſſing entries at the cuſtom-houſe, but we cannot ſay, that we think he has been happy in this explanation.

A general account of the public funds is given in this Dictionary. We expected alſo a deſcription of each particular ſtock; and conſider the want of this information as a capital defect.

Of monies, weights, and meaſures, the mediums by which commerce is carried on, we have, by no means, a complete account. Of the firſt, a general view is given, under the word "coins," which exhibits the relative value the monies of ſeveral countries bear to each other in native money, and what they are worth in ſterling. The latter are both crowded into a ſingle very defective article, which can by no means afford a ſatisfactory anſwer to many enquiries of conſtant uſe in commerce.

Accounts alſo, which may be eſteemed another medium of trade, are treated in the ſame defective manner. A ſlight ſketch of book-keeping is indeed given; but this includes only the moſt obvious accounts. Of the difficulties of that art, not a ſingle word is ſaid; that theſe difficulties merited attention, we believe few commercial men will deny.

We are ſorry to be thus obliged to condemn ſo many parts of a work, which has certainly coſt much labour in the execution. The moſt ſtriking defect through the whole performance, is, that while our own laws and cuſtoms are detailed in a prolix manner, there exiſts a great want of information reſpecting thoſe of foreign countries. This information is a moſt eſſential point in commercial affairs, a general merchant being truly a citizen of the world. Mr. Monteſiore appears to have been himſelf of this opinion; but, in lieu of the municipal laws of the principal marts, he has given us the law of nations. It appears evident, that although he is well acquainted with our own law writers, he has paid little or no attention to the foreign authors on commerce.

The principal cauſe that has led Mr. Monteſiore into ſo many defects, ſeems to have been the want of duly conſidering the ſubjects on which he undertook to write. He appears to have collected from the authors with which he was acquainted, whatever he thought neceſſary to his propoſed ſubject;

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and to have publiſhed his collections haſtily, without reflecting whether they were as perfect in all their parts, and reciprocal relations to each other, as they might be made. He does not ſeem to have been ſenſible, that although an alphabetical arrangement is frequently adopted, for the conveniency of the readers, yet it is neceſſary for the author, to trace at leaſt the outlines of the work on a ſyſtematic plan, in order to form a regular connection between the ſeveral parts. A plan ſhould alſo be laid down for the execution of articles belonging to one ſubject; but theſe conſiderations have been entirely overlooked by the author. Hence ariſes, not only a want of connection between the ſeveral parts, but alſo an inequality in the articles; thoſe moſt ſimilar to each other, being treated in a very diſſimilar manner.

So little attention has Mr. Monteſiore paid to the compoſition of his articles, that even in thoſe which relate to law, and of courſe thoſe on which he has beſtowed the moſt care, we find repetitions of the very ſame obſervations, ſometimes even cloſe together. Thus, in "auctions," we have the caſes of Payne *v.* Cave, 3 T. R. 148; Howard *v.* Caſtle, 6 T. R. 642; Williams *v.* Millington, 1 H. 13, 81; which, at a ſmall diſtance, are repeated; ſome even from the ſame reports, and in the very ſame words. Payne *v.* Cave, Eſp. 29 Geo. III. 3 T. R. 148. Howard *v.* Caſtle, as before. Williams *v.* Willington (as it is now quoted) H. Pol. Rep. 81. Similar repetitions occur in ſome places of the article "exciſe."

From the profeſſional habits of the author, we were led to expect the utmoſt accuracy of expreſſion. We leave our readers to judge whether that accuracy is to be found in the following extracts.

"AUGSBURG, a city of Germany.—Some houſes, however, carry on a little banking trade, and this way through Tyrol, and Graubunter occaſions ſome little exchange between this place and Germany."

"BANK OF GENOA. This eſtabliſhment, denominated the St. George's Bank, is the moſt ancient of any of a ſimilar deſcription in Europe. The capital was compoſed of certain branches of the public revenue, appropriated by the government for that purpoſe, and this fund has ever been kept ſacred and inviolate during the greateſt troubles by which the ſtate has been agitated. This ſociety, from the adminiſtration of it being for life, and partly in the hands of the citizens, has a powerful influence over the ſubjects of the republic, and is a ſalutary check to the encroachments of ariſtocracy; and, whilſt Genoa preſerved her neutrality in the quarrels of the great belligerent powers of Europe, this bank ſupported its circulation, and was the prop of commerce and public credit; but when unfortunately this ſtate was drawn within the vortex of ambition, their commerce, and

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the regulation of the bank of St. George, were ſwallowed up in the gulf.

" The republic of Genoa was altogether a ſort of bank, and lent upon good ſecurity to individuals, but to the French nation it advanced more than 400,000,000 of livres. It is conſequently the greateſt creditor of France; but in this, as in many other caſes, the creditor is the ſervant and ſlave of him who owes."

It would be difficult to aſcertain from this article (of which we have extracted the whole) whether the bank of St. George itſelf was deſtroyed, or only its peculiar regulation.

" BORNEO.—The chief commerce is maintained with China.—The beſt mode of introducing the manufactures of this country into the interior of China would probably be, by having houſes well aſſorted there to exchange with the Chineſe, who traffic with it in veſſels of their own conſtruction."

" COLOGNE.—If this city were peopled, and traded in proportion to its extent, it would be of a ſecond rate in Europe; and, although very ancient, has long been on the decay."

" DISCOUNT.—The reaſon why this ſtatement is here given is, that the tranſactions of ſuch eſtabliſhments (public banks) are generally enveloped in myſtery at the time, and ſeldom publiſhed afterwards; as, owing to particular circumſtances, the above facts were made public at the preſent occaſion."

" GEORGIA, a country of Aſia, one of the ſeven Caucaſian mountains in the countries between the Black Sea and the Caſpian."

" MONEY.—When metals are pure, their weight is exactly proportioned to their bulk; or, in other words, their ſpecific gravities are equal. Gold or ſilver, wherever they are found, when purified, are exactly the ſame in every reſpect, and there is not any poſſible mode of diſcovering a difference. It follows, that of pure metals, ſimilar as they are, the alloys or mixtures made in equal quantities will alſo be ſimilar."

Mr. Monteſiore means, that the ſame metals, from various countries, are ſimilar to one another, and have each of them a peculiar ſpecific gravity; not that the ſpecific gravity of ſilver is equal to that of gold, as a perſon unacquainted with the ſubject might be led to imagine.

With all due deference to the high authority from whence Mr. Monteſiore has extracted his information, the following article, of which we give the whole, is ſurely very obſcure.

" DISAGREEMENT will make a nullity of a thing that had effect before; and diſagreement may be to certain acts to make them void, &c. *Co. Lit.* 380."

Mr. Monteſiore has given what he calls " a complete copy" of Magna Charta; but this is in fact a tranſlation of the *In-*

ſpeximus by Edward I. of the confirmation of that charter by Henry III. The name of John is not mentioned; ſo that a perſon not acquainted with Engliſh hiſtory, would ſuppoſe it had originally been granted by Henry III, and written in modern Engliſh.

In *exciſe*, he refers to *rectifiers;* where, inſtead of finding any further information, we are referred back again to exciſe. In *foreſtalling*, he refers to *ingroſſing;* in *jetzam* to *flotzam;* in *commodity*, to *prices;* in *commiſſion*, and elſewhere, to *del credere;* in *judgment*, to *warrant of attorney;* in *lien*, to *retainer;* but unfortunately not one of the words to which he thus refers are in the work. At *New York*, in lieu of any information, we are referred to *York, New;* and at *New Zealand*, to *Zealand, New;* but the words referred to are again omitted. In *funds*, he ſeems to have intended to mention the charge of a letter of attorney, and the regiſtering of a will for the transfer of India Stock; the charges, however, are omitted, and the lines left imperfect.

Although no table of errata is given, it muſt not be ſuppoſed that ſuch a table is not wanted, as we have obſerved ſeveral errors of the preſs. Of theſe, we ſhall only mention two. In "Bank of Amſterdam," we are told that this eſtabliſhment,

"ſome time ago, came to a reſolution to ſell, at all times, bank money for currency, at five per cent. agio, and to buy it again at five per cent. In conſequence of this reſolution, the agio can never either riſe above five, or ſink below four per cent."

It is evident, that the purchaſe ſhould be ſtated at four per cent. as Mr. Monteſiore himſelf ſays, when he ſpeaks of the profits made by the bank. In treating on theſe profits, we ſhould be led, from his expreſſions, to ſuppoſe that they were abſorbed by the bank itſelf. The Dutch writers, on the contrary, ſay that the bank being merely a place of depoſit for the conveniency of the inhabitants, the city pays all the expences, and the fees, forfeitures, and profits go to the poor. In *exchange*, we are told that the value at par in ſterling money of an aſper in Turkiſh towns is 4s. 6d; in *coins*, the value of an aſper is ſtated at three fifths of a penny; the latter is its real value; for *aſper*, in the firſt inſtance, we muſt read piaſtre or dollar.

Mr. Monteſiore has given a plan of the Royal Exchange; but ſeveral of the walks are omitted, and others are wrongly placed: this we think the more inexcuſable, as, from the proximity of his reſidence, he might eaſily have obtained accurate information on that head.

Since

Since the above was written, we have ſeen an Appendix to this work, conſiſting of five ſheets; price to ſubſcribers, 5s. to non-ſubſcribers, 10s. 6d. It contains an abſtract of the new Acts of Parliament relating to commerce and the city of London. Of the various omiſſions we have above noticed, we obſerve only one ſupplied, namely, *New York*.

ART. X. *The Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London abridged. By Charles Hutton, LL. D. F. R. S. George Shaw, M. D. F. R. S. F. L. S. Richard Pearſon, M. D. F. A. S. Vol. I.* Conſiſting of Four Parts, publiſhed monthly. 552 pp. 10s. 6d. each. C. and R. Baldwin. 1803.

THE Royal Society of London was eſtabliſhed at a period when, in conſequence of the numerous and important diſcoveries in almoſt every department of art and ſcience, ſuch an inſtitution ſeemed highly requiſite, and likely to produce the moſt beneficial effects. The publication of Lord Chancellor Bacon's works, "De Dignitate et Augmentis Scientiarum," "Novum Organum," and "Silva Silvarum," in the earlier part of the ſeventeenth century, had conſiderably diminiſhed the blind attachment of many to the Ariſtotelean philoſophy; had taught them, that it was not the buſineſs of a philoſopher to invent a ſcheme of phyſics which might ſquare with his preconceived logic; and had convinced them of the propriety of laying aſide every theory, that was not the reſult of fair induction, from reiterated experiments. Lord Bacon's exhortations and example produced the happieſt effects. From his time, the different branches of ſcience were cultivated with greater ardour, and a judicious union of phyſics and geometry cauſed them mutually to aid each other's progreſs. Galileo and Kepler, the deſervedly celebrated contemporaries of the Engliſh philoſopher, diſtinguiſhed themſelves equally by the warmth of their attachment to genuine philoſophy, and by the brilliancy and importance of their diſcoveries. To Kepler we owe the diſcovery of the true figure of the orbits, and the proportions of each motion in the ſolar ſyſtem; and, from the language he uſes in his *Epitome Aſtronomiæ*, it ſhould ſeem, that he had ſome faint glimmerings of the cauſe of thoſe motions, not very widely different from that of gravity. The excellent Galileo was no leſs ſucceſsful in his philoſophical enquiries, than in his celebrated diſcoveries in the heavens, by means of the teleſcope. He treated clearly and geometrically

the doctrine of motion; gave the theory, not only of equable motions, but of ſuch as are uniformly accelerated or retarded, and of theſe compounded together; he proved that the path of a projectile, in an unreſiſting medium, is the curve of a parabola; and, by diſcovering the gravity of the air, and, in ſome caſes, the effects of its reſiſtance, he opened the way to ſeveral other enquiries for future philoſophers. To the judicious exertions of theſe illuſtrious men muſt it be aſcribed, that the views of other philoſophers began about that period to be much enlarged, and their enquiries to take a more extenſive range. Thus we find, that about the middle of the ſeventeenth century, the learned men, in almoſt every part of Europe, united their efforts to promote the knowledge of natural ſcience. Auzout, Borelli, Caſſini, Des Cartes, Campani, Guericke, Hevelius, Huygens, Paſchal, and Torricelli, on the continent; and Brouncker, Boyle, Hooke, Rooke, Wallis, Wilkins, and Wren, in England, were among the moſt active and able contributors to the general ſtock. It was at the period of theſe indefatigable and unprecedented exertions, that the philoſophers of England formed the happy project of a *Philoſophical Society*, whoſe objects ſhould be, "to make faithful records of all the works of nature or art which came within their reach; ſo that after ages might be enabled to remark the errors which had been ſtrengthened by long preſcription; to reſtore truths that had been long neglected; to extend thoſe already known to more various uſes; and to open the way to what remains unrevealed." The firſt meetings of the gentlemen who afterwards conſtituted the Royal Society were held in 1648; but it was not till after the Reſtoration (1662) that they obtained their firſt charter. Three years after this, the Philoſophical Tranſactions were begun by Mr. Oldenburg, then Secretary to the Society; which, with the exception of a few ſlight temporary interruptions, not neceſſary to be ſpecified here, have been regularly continued, from that period to the preſent time. Until the year 1752, theſe Tranſactions were publiſhed in numbers, quarterly; and the printing of them was always, to that time, the ſingle act of the reſpective Secretaries; but, at that period, the Society appointed a committee for the management of this concern; and they have ſince been publiſhed annually, in two Parts, at the expence of the Society.

When it is conſidered, that beſides ſeveral of the philoſophers mentioned in the preceding ſketch, ſuch men as Barrow, Collins, Gliſſon, James Gregory, Goddard, Halley, Lower, Maclaurin, Newton, Ray, Willoughby, and many other eminent philoſophers, phyſicians, naturaliſts, &c. enriched the earlier

earlier Tranſactions by their communications; that many of the moſt brilliant diſcoveries in aſtronomy, in optics, in anatomy, in analyſis, in mechanics, in phyſiology, &c. are recorded, exemplified, illuſtrated, and defended in theſe volumes; that the Tranſactions are, in fact, a univerſal repoſitory or ſtore-houſe of nearly all the valuable acceſſions to the different departments of human knowledge in the courſe of a century and a half; and that the great expence of more than ninety quarto volumes (not to dwell upon the ſcarcity of the earlier part) is ſuch as to put them far beyond the reach of a great majority of ſtudents; it is really matter of ſurpriſe, that no attempt to preſent the public with their ſubſtance, in an abridged form, has not been made during an interval of fifty years. The abridgment by Baddam was judiciouſly performed, conſidering the confined ſcale on which it was undertaken; and the quarto abridgment, begun by Lowthorp, and continued by Jones, Eames, and Martyn, to the year 1750, though conducted on a plan which is ſubject, in our opinion, to numerous objections, muſt ſtill be acknowledged a performance of much utility; and conveys, on the whole, a tolerably fair view of the works of the learned contributors, from the eſtabliſhment of the Society down to that period. But, as none of the papers in foreign or in dead languages are tranſlated, this circumſtance prevents many readers from conſulting that abridgment with advantage; and, as the publiſhers deviated from the chronological order, for the ſake of claſſing the different ſubjects, a perſon may have been in the frequent habit of recurring to the work, without obtaining a juſt idea of the nature and plan of the original Tranſactions. Conſidering then, as we decidedly do, the Philoſophical Tranſactions of our Royal Society as an honour to our native land, and being ſolicitous to ſupport the claims of our countrymen to many noble diſcoveries, which foreigners ſtrive to wreſt from them (an object which, among many others, a judicious abridgment of the Tranſactions ſeems calculated to attain), we were pleaſed to hear of a new abridgment, under the management of men of ſuch eſtabliſhed talents in their reſpective departments; and we have thought it our duty to give our readers an early account of the Parts already publiſhed.

In the abridgment, four Parts of which are now before us, the editors have adopted a very commendable plan, as will appear by an extract from their Proſpectus.

" The ſubjects will be preſented in the ſame order in which they appear in the original. The more important diſſertations will be reprinted in the ſtyle and language of the reſpective authors, with the adoption, however, of the modern inſtead of the old orthography. The leſs important diſſertations will be conſiderably abridged; and when

when papers occur, the ſubjects of which are deemed unintereſting, or of which better accounts are to be found in ſome of the ſubſequent volumes, the titles only will be given, with ſhort explanatory notes; but no paper will be left wholly unnoticed. Thoſe which are written in foreign languages will be tranſlated, unleſs, from the nature of the ſubject, there would be an impropriety in giving them in Engliſh. All the figures contained in the plates of the original Tranſactions will be re-engraven by eminent artiſts, excepting ſuch as relate to unintereſting papers of the deſcription before-mentioned. When neceſſary, the papers will be elucidated by critical and ſcientific notes; and a ſhort biographical notice will accompany the firſt mention of any principal contributor to the original work."

We are aware that, in ſuch an undertaking as an abridgment of many ponderous volumes on multifarious and heterogeneous ſubjects, much difference of opinion muſt exiſt, as to the path which ought to be purſued; while ſome will prefer an abridgment in which the order of the original work is preſerved, others would be better pleaſed with an abridgment arranged according to the nature of the reſpective ſubjects*; it will be ſeen that we give the preference to the former. But the moſt difficult thing is to abridge, in ſuch a manner as to remove every ground of objection, from people of different taſtes and ſtudies. The phyſician may perhaps be deſirous to ſee the articles on chemiſtry, anatomy, phyſiology, ſurgery, &c. abridged but ſlightly, while thoſe on mathematics, mechanics, muſic, &c. ſhall be reduced almoſt to nothing. The mathematician might wiſh to have the abridgment filled with analyſis, geometry, increments, fluxions, &c. ſo as ſcarcely to leave a corner for any other ſubject; and the mere virtuoſo might ardently hope that neither anatomy nor analyſis, geometry, nor mechanics, ſhould be allowed that ſpace which he would give to the deſcription of a curious ſhell, or the delinea-

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* Such an abridgment, though apparently but little known in this country, was publiſhed at Paris in 1787—1791, under the ſuperintendance of Gibelin, a Doctor of Phyſic, with ſome able coadjutors. It conſiſts of fourteen volumes, 8vo. with plates. The ſubjects are thus diſtributed. 1. Natural Hiſtory, two volumes, 1787, by Gibelin. 2. Materia Medica and Pharmacy, two volumes, 1789, by Wilmet and Boſquillon. 3. Botany, two volumes, 1790, by Gibelin. 4. Natural Hiſtory, two volumes, 1790, by Regnier. 5. Anatomy and Animal Phyſiology, one volume, 1790, by Pinel. 6. Antiquities and Fine Arts, two volumes, 1789, by Millin de Grandmaiſon. 7. Miſcellaneous Obſervations, Travels, &c. one volume, 1790, by the ſame. 8. Medicine and Surgery, one volume, 1791, by Pinel. 9. Chemiſtry, one volume, by the ſame. This account we have taken from a ſet which is in the library of the Royal Inſtitution.

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tion of a beautiful fly. So long as this is the caſe, it is impoſſible that readers of all deſcriptions ſhould be thoroughly ſatisfied: and had the abridgment been conducted by any one man, however enlarged his knowledge and liberal his views, it is probable there would have been a danger of ſuch predominance in ſome line or other; but as the preſent work is compoſed by men of eminence, in widely different purſuits, and each at the ſame time poſſeſſing a competent ſhare of general knowledge, they will naturally act as a kind of check upon each other, and thus it may be expected, that the lengths of the various articles will be duly and fairly apportioned. We have examined with much attention the parts which are publiſhed, yet have not obſerved an inſtance in which we think the ſubject or articles, in proportion to their importance, negligently treated. Nor can there be much ſuſpicion, on the other hand, of redundancy, when we ſay, that in the compaſs of 744 quarto pages, the editors have compriſed their abridgment of the firſt ſeven volumes of the Tranſactions.

It would draw us far beyond our limits, were we to ſhow the fairneſs of the abridgment by extracting an article from the original work, and placing immediately after it the ſame article in its abridged form: nor indeed would a ſingle extract from each performance ſuffice to prove, that the whole was judiciouſly executed. But we can in leſs compaſs give ſpecimens of the manner in which the editors have enriched their performance with biographical and critical notes, by preſenting the reader with one or two of each.

Our firſt extract is taken from a note at p. 319, reſpecting that great phyſiologiſt Harvey. Our readers in general are, we doubt not, ready to aſcribe the diſcovery of the circulation of the blood to this illuſtrious Engliſhman; they will, nevertheleſs, derive pleaſure from the peruſal of a note on the ſubject of that diſcovery: we therefore inſert it here.

"It is not poſſible to do juſtice to the memory of the great Harvey within the limits of a note. His life will perhaps be inſerted in the miſcellaneous volume intended to be added to this Abridgment. In the mean time, in place of a biographical ſketch, we ſhall lay before our readers a ſummary account of the circulation of the blood, as explained and demonſtrated by him in his immortal work, entitled Exercitatio Anatom. de Cordis et Sanguinis Motu, firſt publiſhed in 1628; though he had announced, ſeveral years antecedent to this publication, the leading facts belonging to this important diſcovery, in the lectures which he delivered before the college of phyſicians. In the above-mentioned treatiſe (the abſtract of which here given is taken from the account of Harvey prefixed to the edition of his works by the London college) he ſhows, by experiments made on living animals, that

that the motion of the heart is performed by the contraction of its muſcular fibres: that the auricles contract firſt, and thereby propel the blood into the ventricles; then the ventricles contract, whereby the blood is driven into the arteries; being prevented from returning into the auricles, by the ſituation and connexion of the valves. Now as by the repeated contractions of the ventricles more blood is conſtantly propelled into the arteries than can be ſupplied by nouriſhment thrown into the veins (as appears upon calculation), and as moreover the arteries cannot receive blood through any other channel but the veins; it follows either that the veins muſt be quickly emptied, and the arteries on the contrary every moment more and more diſtended, which however is not the caſe: or that the blood muſt flow back again from the arteries into the veins, by certain ſecret paſſages, or by pores of the fleſh, or by mutual anaſtomoſes of the arteries and veins. He demonſtrates that the laſt-mentioned communication takes place in the lungs. Again; as along the courſe of the arteries more blood is ſent from the heart to all parts of the body than is neceſſary for the nouriſhment of thoſe parts, he infers that the ſuperfluous blood is returned by the veins (that they may not be left empty) from this fact, that no blood is found in the veins if the great artery be tied. On the other hand, if a ligature be paſſed round the vena cava at the place where it joins the right auricle, it will immediately become diſtended in a very ſurpriſing manner. Moreover, it muſt be evident to every one (he obſerves) who conſiders the ſituation and connexion of the valves, that the blood paſſes from the ſmaller branches of the veins into their trunks, and from thence to the heart. The true movement of the blood being thus diſcovered, Harvey was enabled through it to account for the diſtribution of nouriſhment and warmth to every part of the body, and to throw great light upon many obſcure points relative to the animal œconomy, both in health and diſeaſe. No doctrine could be ſupported by proofs more ſimple and deciſive: nevertheleſs they were diſputed by ſeveral of his contemporaries, and particularly by Riolan, to whom he made an able reply. Others, inſtead of combating the truth of his diſcovery, endeavoured to rob him of the merit of it, by pretending that it was known to Ariſtotle and Galen among the ancients, and to Cervetus, Columbus, and Cæſalpinus among the moderns. Some indeed of the laſt mentioned authors had made conſiderable progreſs towards a juſt conception of the blood's motion, intermingled, however, with the errors imbibed from the ancients above-mentioned; but none of the paſſages quoted from their writings ſhow that they taught or underſtood that the blood moved in a regular uninterrupted courſe from the heart to the arteries, and from them through the veins back again to the heart. As for what relates to the ſtory of Pauli of Venice having been acquainted with the circulation of the blood before Harvey publiſhed his account of it; this circumſtance has been cleared up in Dr. Clarck's letter, inſerted in the preceding part of this Abridgment, p. 248. Thus does our countryman, the immortal Harvey, remain in full poſſeſſion of the honour of a diſcovery, which has led to elucidations of ſome of the moſt important phænomena of animal life, and is the main clue by which we have

been conducted to a more accurate knowledge of diſeaſed actions, and to more ſimple as well as more rational modes of counteracting them. Harvey was born at Folkſtone in Kent in 1578, and died in 1658, having completed his 80th year. The London College of Phyſicians publiſhed his works in 4to. 1766. Among theſe his Exercitatio de Generatione Animal. holds the next place after his treatiſe on the heart and circulation above-noticed."

A ſhort biographical account of the celebrated Mr. John Collins, is given at p. 207; but ſome ſupplementary particulars, not very generally known, are added in a note at p. 338, where it is obſerved, that

" He was of great benefit to the ſciences in general; keeping up a conſtant correſpondence with many of the moſt learned men of his time, both at home and abroad, and promoting the publication of ſeveral valuable works, which without his encouragement would never have been ſeen by the public; particularly Dr. Barrow's optical and geometrical lectures, alſo the doctor's abridgement of the works of Archimedes, Apollonius, and Theodoſius; likewiſe Brounker's tranſlation of Rhonius's algebra, with Dr. Pell's additions, &c. which were procured by his frequent ſolicitations. Some time after his death, among his papers, were found a multitude of manuſcripts, on mathematical ſubjects, of Briggs, Oughtred, Barrow, Newton, Leibnitz, Pell, and many others. From whoſe letters, and thoſe of other celebrated mathematicians, it appears that Mr. Collins ſpared neither pains nor coſt to procure what tended to promote real ſcience. Alſo many of the diſcoveries in phyſical knowledge owe their chief improvement to him; for while he excited ſome to diſcloſe every new and uſeful invention, he employed others in improving them. Sometimes he was peculiarly uſeful, by ſhowing where the defect lay in any branch of ſcience, pointing out the difficulties attending the inquiry; at other times explaining their advantages, and keeping up a ſpirit and energy for improvement. In ſhort, Mr. Collins was like the regiſter of all the new acquiſitions made in the mathematical ſciences; the magazine to which the curious had frequent recourſe; which acquired him the appellation of the Engliſh Merſenne. And had not ſome of his correſpondents obliged him to conceal their communications, there could have been no diſpute about the priority of the invention of a method of analyſis, the honour of which doubtleſs belonged to Newton; as appears from the papers printed in Collins's Commercium Epiſtolicum; a work which was made out from the letters left in poſſeſſion of this author.

" Mr. Collins wrote and publiſhed himſelf a variety of uſeful works: as, An Introduction to Merchants' Accounts, &c. 1652; The Sector on a Quadrant, 1658; Geometrical Dialling, 1659; The Mariner's Plain Scale new plained, 1659; alſo ſeveral ingenious papers printed in the Phil. Trans. beſides ſome uſeful commercial tracts, highly acceptable to the public.

" Mr. Collins's birth and early proſpects, like thoſe of many other great men, were but low and humble. He was born at Wood Eaton near Oxford in 1624, and at 16 years of age was put apprentice to a

bookſeller in this city; but appearing to have a remarkable turn for the mechanical and mathematical ſciences, he was taken under the protection of a Mr. Marr, a perſon who drew ſeveral curious dials, which were placed in different poſitions in the king's garden; and under him Mr. Collins made no ſmall progreſs in mathematics. In the courſe of the civil wars he went to ſea for ſeven years, but ſtill proſecuted his favourite ſtudy; and on his return he aſſumed the profeſſion of an accountant and civil engineer, giving his advice and directions in nice and critical caſes, relating to matters of commerce, of accounts, and of engineering, till the time of his death, which happened in the year 1683, in the 59th year of his age."

Not long after the time of the eſtabliſhment of the Royal Society, the celebrated experiment of the transfuſion of the blood was made by many perſons in England, and by Monſ. Denis at Paris. At that period, when many important and extraordinary diſcoveries were made by philoſophers, it was fondly hoped that this new experiment would, in their hands, be found productive of the moſt beneficial effects; that it would furniſh, in many caſes, an eaſy method of removing diſeaſe, and of procuring indefinite longevity. Accordingly, we find that the buſineſs was ardently taken up in England, as well as on the Continent, and ſeveral inſtances of transfuſion are related in the earlier numbers of the Tranſactions, of which abridged accounts are given in the work before us. In a note to one of theſe, we find mention of the accurate and judicious experiments of the preſent Profeſſor of Anatomy at Cambridge, Dr. Buſick Harwood.

"Theſe experiments place it beyond a doubt that, in caſes of ſudden and profuſe evacuations of blood, the fatal conſequences which would otherwiſe enſue may, in the brute creation, be prevented by the immediate introduction of a proportionate quantity of freſh blood from another animal, in a healthy ſtate; a fact which ſeems controvertible to medical uſe, in certain caſes of hemorrhage occurring in the human ſubject."

All who are acquainted with the ſound judgment and talents of the Profeſſor here mentioned, will attach great conſequence to any purſuit, in which he may warmly engage, and will naturally expect that, whatever good can ariſe from well-conducted and reiterated experiments, will be ſtruck out ultimately by a man of his energy of character. To detail many of his experiments would, we confeſs, gratify us, but this cannot be done now without giving this article a diſproportionate extent. It muſt ſuffice, therefore, if we extract one, as here deſcribed.

"Experiment 4. All the blood of a pointer was let out (as far as it was poſſible to evacuate it) till the animal was in convulſions on the

table, and apparently expiring. The blood was then transfuſed from the jugular of a ſheep into the correſpondent vein of the dog, and in leſs than half a minute after the introduction of the tube, he began to reſpire, and as ſoon as he had received a quantity of ſheep's blood equal to what he had loſt of his own, he leaped from the table and walked home, without experiencing any apparent inconvenience either then or at any ſubſequent period. This experiment was performed before a very crowded meeting at the public ſchools in the Botanic garden of the univerſity. It has been frequently repeated ſince, and a variety of other animals have been ſubjected to the ſame experiments, and with equal ſucceſs.

" From all the numerous experiments which have been lately made upon this ſubject, one important fact ſeems to be fully eſtabliſhed, that the blood of an *herbivorous animal* may be ſubſtituted for that of a *carnivorous animal*, and *vice verſa*, without danger, or even inconvenience to the animal who receives it. In caſes therefore of ſuch copious evacuations of blood as to threaten the death of the patient, would not transfuſion be expedient? and if death ſhould be inevitable without it, does it not become a duty to make a trial?" P. 186.

Here then, for the preſent, our extracts muſt end. We conceive the work before us to be even of national importance; and, if the whole be carried through with the ſpirit, taſte, and judgment which are exhibited in this firſt volume, it will be a *national honour*. It will tend to convince many foreigners who have not opportunities of peruſing the original Tranſactions, how much every ſcience and every art owes to Britiſh improvement. It will be a means of preventing any impudent pretenders from robbing our illuſtrious forefathers of the fame which is ſo juſtly their due. It will diſſeminate more widely the principles of real and uſeful knowledge; it will ſhow more clearly how different objects of human enquiry reciprocally illuſtrate and ſupport each other; and prove the truth of that obſervation of Cicero: " *Omnes artes quæ ad humanitatem pertinent, habent quoddam commune vinculum, et quaſi cognatione quadam inter ſe continentur.*"

We ſhall think it our duty to watch the progreſs of this work, and when we find any thing which calls peculiarly for either cenſure or commendation, ſhall again bring it before the public. A fair eſtimate, however, may be formed from what has already appeared, and, judging from this, we have no heſitation in recommending ſo uſeful and valuable a performance to general patronage and ſupport.

ART.

ART. XI. *The Hiſtory of Ilium or Troy: including the adjacent Country, and the oppoſite Coaſt of the Cherſoneſus of Thrace. By the Author of "Travels in Aſia Minor and Greece,"* 4to. 167 pp. 10s, 6d. Robſon. 1802.

THIS publication, by Dr. Chandler, is a proof that the controverſy concerning Homer and his works is not drawing to a concluſion; and, to confeſs the truth, while it continues under the management of ſo many learned men, we enter with pleaſure into every part of the debate; eſpecially where we find it conducted with liberality of ſentiment, or where it tends to illuſtrate the character of the poet, or the excellence of the poems. But we have no heſitation in condemning petulance, arrogance, and party ſpirit, wherever they appear, as totally foreign to a queſtion of literary enquiry.

In this view the Hiſtory of Ilium affords us much ſatisfaction, for though the author is equally adverſe to Mr. Bryant's ſyſtem, which annihilates Troy and all that concerns it, and to Mr. Chevalier's endeavours to introduce a new Scamander into the topography of the Troad, he conducts his arguments with ſo much candour and moderation, that though neither of his opponents may accede to his opinion, both will have reaſon to be pleaſed with his moderation.

New matter of diſpute is alſo likely to ariſe from a recent ſurvey of the country by Profeſſor Carliſle; and the ſplendid edition of the poet juſt received from Göetingen, muſt neceſſarily ſuggeſt a variety of conſiderations intimately connected with the ſubject, and affording ample matter of diſcuſſion to all that feel intereſted in the deciſion of the queſtion. Profeſſor Heyne, indeed, has treated all our countrymen with a degree of faſtidiouſneſs, which may hereafter provoke that ſort of reply which he ſo carefully deprecates; for he aſſerts, that they who have viſited the Troad, and they who have written upon the ſubject, were not ſufficiently qualified to form a judgment, and too little acquainted with Homer to deliver an opinion, while that of the commentator himſelf is undetermined! We ſhall not at preſent enter further into this cenſure, nor undertake the defence of Engliſh travellers or Engliſh writers; but we wiſh barely to obſerve, that in no country of Europe is Homer ſo generally read, or his excellence ſo juſtly eſtimated and admired, as in England. We now mention this edition incidentally, as affording much matter for future controverſy; and we ſhall not be averſe to purſue the queſtion through whatever channels it may deviate in its progreſs.

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On that portion of it which is before us, we do not heſitate to ſay, that Dr. Chandler has contributed eſſentially to eſtabliſh the exiſtence of Troy, and the reality of the Trojan war, in oppoſition to the hypotheſis of Mr. Bryant; and though it will be ſaid, that Mr. B. never denied the opinion of the Greeks themſelves upon this ſubject, and that therefore all the teſtimonies produced from Greek writers prove only the deception of the whole nation in this reſpect; ſtill we cannot help thinking, that teſtimonies, collected as thoſe of Dr. C. are, and brought to bear upon the point in every direction, afford evidence which cannot be ſet aſide, but by that method of reaſoning which Lord Bolingbroke adopted, to queſtion all hiſtory, for the ſake of invalidating the hiſtory of the Bible. Nothing is more eaſy than to deſcry difficulties, obſcurities, inaccuracies, and inconſiſtencies in any narrative that is ſet before us, and yet the main fact may nevertheleſs be perfectly true.

With this view, we ſhall preſent our readers with the following extract.

" It does not often happen that ancient fiction can, as in this inſtance, be traced to its ſource; and ſcepticiſm or incredulity is frequently the reſult of difficulty in diſcriminating true hiſtory from its alloy. Mr. Bryant has contended, that the two poems of Homer are mere fables; and that no ſuch war, no ſuch place as Troy, has ever exiſted. Having made a large collection of idle and abſurd ſtories from different authors, about Jupiter, and Leda, and Helen (whom he will not allow to have been carried away from Sparta by Paris), and ſeveral other perſons concerned, he declares, and nobody, I imagine, will diſſent from a poſition of ſo great latitude, that " the account of the Trojan war, as delivered by Homer, *and other Grecian writers*, is attended with ſo many inſtances of inconſiſtency, and ſo many contradictions, that it is an inſult to reaſon to afford it any credit."

" In the deſcription, ſays the ſame learned perſon, of the ſiege of Troy, and the great events with which it was accompanied, Homer " is very particular and preciſe. The ſituation of the city is pointed out, as well as the camp of the Grecians;" and various objects, " with the courſe and fords of the river, are diſtinctly marked, ſo that the very landſcape preſents itſelf to the eye of the reader.—The poet alſo" mentions " ſeveral " ſubſequent " events—in medias res non ſecus ac notas auditorem rapit"—all which " caſual references ſeem to have been portions of a traditional hiſtory, well known in the time of Homer; but, as they are introduced almoſt undeſignedly, they are generally attended with a great ſemblance of truth. For ſuch incidental and partial intimations are ſeldom to be found in Romance and Fable." Who, on reading theſe remarks, would ſuſpect it to be the ſcope of the author to prove the whole ſtory of Troy as ideal as a fairy-tale?

" I will

"I will not enter here on a particular examination of the arguments uſed by Mr. Bryant on this occaſion. Some of them I ſhall be obliged, though unwilling, to notice as we proceed. It may, however, be now mentioned, that among other novel opinions, for which I refer to his Diſſertation, he maintains, that the ground-work of the Ilias, if it had any, was foreign to the country on which we are employed; that the hiſtory never related, but has been borrowed and transferred, to it; that, in ſhort, the original poem of Troy, the parent of the Ilias, was an Egyptian compoſition. I ſhall add a companion or two to this notable diſcovery. A diſciple of Epicurus undertook to prove the Ilias to be entirely an allegory; and I have ſomewhere read, that it was not firſt written in Greek, but is a tranſlation from the Celtic language.

"I ſubjoin the very different opinion of a reſpectable writer in the Ancient Univerſal Hiſtory on the ſame ſubject. "The name of King Priam will ever be memorable, on account of the war which happened in his reign; a war, famous to this day for the many princes of great proweſs and renown concerned in it, the battles fought, the length of the ſiege, the deſtruction of the city, and the endleſs colonies planted in divers parts of the world, by the conquered as well as the conquerors." "Truly, ſays my author, the ſiege and taking of Troy are tranſactions ſo well atteſted, and have left ſo remarkable an epocha in hiſtory, that no man of ſenſe can call them in queſtion." P. 25.

It does not come within the compaſs of our work to follow Dr. Chandler through the detail of his narrative; but his account is carried on, through the ſixth, ſeventh, and eighth Chapters of his work, with much learning and great ability, till he treads on the firm ground of hiſtory in the ninth; when we find the memorial of Achilles preſerved on the ſpot where he was buried. Was this a fiction, invented by the inhabitants to amuſe the Athenians upon landing on their territory? Or was it found exiſting as the tradition of the country? Herodotus expreſsly mentions it, upon this occaſion, as the Achillean city. If the hiſtorian was deceived into the belief of the Trojan war, like the reſt of his countrymen, he was not the inventor of the name; it was found there already exiſting, not derived from hiſtory, but tradition; and the other places or cities in the neighbourhood, mentioned by Homer, ſuch as Dardanus, Seſtos, Abydus, Percote, and the rivers, were all found in the ſituations in which he had deſcribed them. If the whole were then a fiction, it was founded on circumſtances ſuch as no fiction ever obtained for its ſupport. If it were a fiction, giving riſe to a tradition from the time of Homer to the age of hiſtory, and from the dawn of hiſtory till it was controverted within theſe thirty years, it is unparalleled in any other inſtance; and has more evidence to ſupport it than any doubtful hiſtory, or any thing approaching to a ſimilar caſe that can be produced.

It is not till the thirteenth Chapter that we are at length introduced to the ſecond Ilium, as it was known to the hiſtorians from the time of Xerxes (p. 52) to the reign of Julian; and the hiſtory of the city, deduced through a variety of fortunes, we conceive will be charged to the author as a work of ſupererogation. Perhaps it will be ſaid, notwithſtanding the caution given (p. 53). that the detail of this narrative is foreign to the title of the book; that the title-page announces the hiſtory of the original Ilium, or Troy itſelf, while greater part of the work contains the account of its repreſentative only, the exiſtence of which was never denied, and therefore forms no part of the controverſy. We cannot wholly exculpate the learned author in this reſpect; yet we peruſed this portion of his reſearch with ſome degree of intereſt, as being attached to the main point of the ſubject, and as continuing to keep alive and maintain the tradition which was common to the Aſiatics, to the Greeks, and the Romans. So far it is connected with the whole; and the performance of the taſk indicates the learning and diligence of the author; while his perſonal acquaintance with the country gives a warmth and reliſh to the deduction of particulars, which would not have been given by a perſon leſs intereſted in the ſubject.

As a proof of this, and a corroboration of the tradition, we offer the following extract to the notice of our readers.

"Demetrius related concerning Scepſis, that it was founded, and that the people had removed into it, under Scamandrius, ſon of Hector, and Aſcanius, ſon of Æneas; that the monarchy eſtabliſhed in theſe two families had been ſucceeded, after a long continuance, by an oligarchy; which, a colony of Mileſians becoming co-citizens, yielded to a democracy; but that the title of kings had remained to their deſcendants, and that they had enjoyed certain honours, down to the time of the removal of the people by Antigonus; his zeal for its antiquity and glory, as Strabo has obſerved, overcoming, in this inſtance, his reverence for the authority of Homer, by whom the race of Priam is declared in the Ilias about to be extinct; moreover, that the Scepſians were permitted to return to their own country by Lyſimachus; but that the Cebrenians, with whom, ſeparated only by the river Scamander, they had been always at war and enmity, were retained with the other people at Alexandrea. Scepſis recovered in ſome degree its priſtine conſequence; and Theophraſtus, a pupil of Ariſtotle, and his ſucceſſor in his ſchool at Athens, gave his library, which included that of his maſter, the firſt on record, to a Scepſian, one of their diſciples; who removed it to this city, and left it to his deſcendants, many years the unworthy poſſeſſors of that invaluable treaſure." P. 75.

Several other parts of the work might have been extracted with equal propriety; but, as Demetrius was a native of the country, and publiſhed a voluminous diſſertation on the catalogue

logue of the Trojan forces in Homer, a ſpecimen of his opinion in regard to the tradition, and the general account of the Troad, can hardly prove unacceptable to thoſe whoſe curioſity has been excited by the late publications on the queſtion.

The work is conducted afterwards, through an induſtrious collection of general and minute circumſtances, to its concluſion, with the invaſion and deſtruction of the Greek empire by the Turks; and, ſubject to the exceptions already ſpecified, we do not heſitate to conſider it as a valuable acceſſion to the maſs of information, produced by the many learned writers who have engaged themſelves in this controverſy, from the firſt propoſal of Mr. Bryant's doubts to the preſent day. We underſtand that Dr. Chandler is employed at preſent upon a work, more ſpecifically examining the geography of the Troad, which we ſhall be glad to ſee preſented to the public.

BRITISH CATALOGUE.

POETRY.

ART. 12. *The Poet's Day, or Imagination's Ramble; a Poem, in Four Books, with ſome ſmaller Pieces.* 12mo. 112 pp. Watts and Bridgewater. 1803.

This very ſmall volume exhibits a perfect picture of modeſt merit, without a dedication, without a preface, with no author's name affixed, it comes out into the world, to make its way againſt all chances; for which reaſons we are the more anxious to call it into notice. Accident has thrown it in our way, without an intimation of its origin, except what appears in the title; but no accident ſhall make us delay its eulogium. Full of good poetry and good principles, it would be a reproach to a ſound critic to let it ſlumber in obſcurity.

As Thomſon has given four Books to the Seaſons, this poet has made a ſimilar diviſion of the natural day, and divides his ſubject into Morning, Noon, Evening, and Night. Theſe are in part deſcriptive like the Books of Thomſon, but in a greater proportion given to moral and religious reflection, and excurſions of the imagination. The author ſeems to have made Cowper his model more than Thomſon; nor

is he unſtudied in the Night Thoughts. Theſe are certainly the beſt ſources of blank verſe, not riſing to Miltonic dignity, and the writer does not diſgrace their ſchool. Let us give, as an example, his reflections in a place of burial.

" Why lie theſe ſleepers here? Is this the end?
The final end of man? Was heav'n's laſt work,
The wonder of angelic hoſts, deſign'd
To riſe a vapour from this maſs of earth
Blaze in the dark one moment, then expire
The wonder of angelic hoſts again?
Come forth proud reaſon, try thy vaunted ſtrength,
Rouſe into energy, exert thy ſkill,
And ſummon up afreſh each active pow'r,
In the full force of argument array'd.
Let thy keen eye pierce through th' incumbent gloom
Which veils from finite minds the ways of heav'n:
Then with an arrogance thine own, proceed
To weigh the Deity in equal ſcales;
And ſcan the workings of omnipotence!
This previous taſk perform'd, to man declare
His laſt unchanging ſtate: muſt he remain
The priſ'ner of his mother earth! or riſe
Refin'd and pure, a claimant of the ſkies?"

This rhyme ſhould have been avoided; and ſome weak lines follow. Then, ſpeaking of reaſon, the author ſays,

" Full well ye know how circumſcrib'd and ſhort,
Her utmoſt ſallies fall of that great end
To which aſpires all wiſdom worth the name.
A purer fire muſt burn within the ſoul
From revelation caught, ere ſhe explore
Nature's grand ſecret, moſt profoundly kept:
Draw back the curtain which involves this ſcene:
And take a view of that beyond the grave.
Here day-break opens on the wond'ring ſoul,
And ſkilful death unfolds myſterious life." P. 15.

After ſo many poetical ſtorms as have been produced, it is difficult to give novelty to the deſcription of ſuch a ſcene, yet this poet has ſucceeded in ſo doing towards the end of his firſt Book. We cannot give room for the whole, but the concluſion muſt have a place. While the ſea was calm, he ſays;

" Forth from yon beach th' unwary pilot launch'd
His ſhatter'd bark, unmindful of the ſtorm
Which then in embryo hung. Ill-fated choice
To brave the tempeſt in a leaky ſkiff,
When that large veſſel from her anchors broke,
Hurl'd o'er the angry main, now ſcarcely lives,
Nor can the torrent ſtem. Methinks I ſee
Rais'd on her main-maſt waving in the air,

Some

Some ſignal of diſtreſs, ſome mark hung out,
To call forth aid, whilſt the dread minute guns
Like meſſengers of death aſſail my ear.
Why ſtart I at the ſound? if dreadful here
How muſt yon weary ſeaman ſtand appall'd,
Amidſt the howlings of the tempeſt's rage?
Long has he fearleſs plough'd the briny deep,
And weather'd oft the cruel wintry blaſt;
And muſt he periſh now? periſh in ſight
Of Albion's cliffs, nor ever gain the port,
Though full in view, where all his wiſhes tend.
What wreck'd upon the ſhore? the long ſought coaſt?
So many dangers paſt—Ill-fated bark!
No—ſtill ſhe lives, and O! propitious heav'n!
Amid this tumult; this conflicting jar
Of elements, avert the threaten'd ſtroke,
Bid *theſe* ſubſide, or *her* outride the ſtorm." P. 27.

We ſhould make an article of very conſiderable length, were we to extract even a ſmall proportion of the parts that have pleaſed us in it. The three firſt Books have their ſhare of deſcription; but the fourth is almoſt wholly occupied by an imagined picture of the Day of Judgment, in which arduous ſubject the author is by no means unſucceſsful; even after Young. A few Poems are ſubjoined, in couplet or ſtanza. In theſe the author is not ſo practiſed, apparently, as in blank verſe, yet far from deficient. The Eulogy on Britain, highly commendable for its patriotiſm, is by no means unworthy of the ſubject, and concludes with a ſentiment well deſerving of recollection. After extolling Religion and Liberty as the great ſupporters of the country, the poet, adverting to our preſent ſituation, recals to mind the deſtruction of the famous Armada, and thus winds up the whole:

" Such was the ſafety of thy ſtate, in days
When God was honor'd, and his works met praiſe;
And ſhall be ſtill, if ſtill Omnipotence
Be own'd thy ſafeguard and thy ſure defence.
While ye obey, your guardian is divine,
His pow'r protects you, and his arms enſhrine.
But if regardleſs of his might, ye riſe
And lift your heads rebellious to the ſkies;
Ye fall—and falling ſpread this truth abroad,
That nation ſinks which dares depart from God." P. 108.

Some few improvements might be ſuggeſted to particular lines; but the places which require them will probably catch the author's own eye in a future peruſal.

ART. 13. *The Inquiry. Part I.* Small 8vo. 44 pp. 1s. Hatchard, Piccadilly. 1803.

If we deviate from our general plan, it muſt be in favour of diſtinguiſhed merit. So it is with reſpect to this little tract, which, as imperfect, would otherwiſe have been ſuffered to wait for its completion. A caſual inſpection, however, ſhowed us powers of writing and of

reaſoning, which ought by no means to remain in obſcurity. The Enquiry here undertaken, is into the immortality of the human ſoul: the ſcene is placed in a venerable church, at the time of an evening funeral. The opening is therefore deſcriptive, and the deſcription is very animated.

" How faint the tapers wav'ring on the wall!
What awful ſhades from theſe dark pillars fall!
Here only reigns, at noon's full blazing height,
A dim, diſcolour'd, viſionary light;
Through viſta'd aiſles, or o'er the martyr's tomb,
The deep-ſtain'd arches ſhed religious gloom,
Till from the weſt, through ev'ry ſainted row,
Rich evening pours a tranſitory glow,
And o'er the duſky columns wand'ring run
Hues ſteep'd in fire, and colours of the ſun:
But now the murm'ring roof's o'erarching height
Darkneſs uſurps, and undiſturbed night.
The time-worn banner, pendent from on high,
Half loſt in gloom, with melancholy ſigh,
Whiſpers of death. In ev'ry low-brow'd cell
Prophetic fear and ſilent horror dwell,
Chilling the mortal's heart, whoſe ſteps invade,
With foot profane, the conſecrated ſhade.
Dark tombs and ſhrines I paſs; and ſoftly tread
On echoes that ſeem utter'd by the dead;
Mourn o'er the faithful monument that weeps,
Where many a talent, many a virtue ſleeps;
Or mark the ſilent wreck of ages paſt,
The mould'ring tomb with ſpiry fret-work grac'd,
Recumbent chiefs that pious hands uphold,
Sword, gauntlets, helm, emblazon'd ſhields, and gold:
Stain'd with green damps, I view the beauty's buſt,
Like her, returning to the formleſs duſt;
Or, on the pavement, mitred ſaints explore,
And brazen legends, legible no more.
Ah, fleeting man! ah, fruſtrate thirſt of fame!
And fruitleſs toil t' immortalize a name!" P. 3.

It is evident that the poet has ſtudied with care Hawkins Brown's fine Poem, " De Animi immortalitate," and he has done wiſely. The following paſſage almoſt proves his intimacy with it.

" Or were this being ſure with life to cloſe,
And periſh in the gulf from whence it roſe,
Then ſhould *Neæra* to my heart be preſs'd,
Sooth ev'ry pang, and lull my cares to reſt;
On Beauty's boſom ſhould my head recline,
And one ſhort hour of bliſs on earth be mine!" P. 6.

Compare this with Brown's,

" Quare

" Quare age, vina liques: epulæ, convivia, luſus,
Pſallere doĉta Chloe, citharæque perita *Neæra*,
Non abſint, volucris rape lætus dona diei;
Quærere nec cures quid crattina proferat hora."

The following queſtion gives a good ſpecimen of the nature of the enquiry: and beyond it we cannot at preſent allow ourſelves to extract.

" Hath he, whoſe works magnificently ſhine
With pow'r, benevolence, and high deſign,
On his prime fabric all his ſkill employ'd
To bid it ſink amid a ſenſeleſs void?
Shall this unbounded godlike ſoul of man,
That graſps infinitude, but fill a ſpan?
Thoughts that through endleſs worlds delight to run,
Periſh in what they ſcorn, this earthly one?
And Genius, Wiſdom, Virtue, all decay,
To fill up pits with intellectual clay?
Are Newton's energies in duſt confin'd,
And fruſtrate every hope of Johnſon's mind?" P. 8.

Some intelligent notes are ſubjoined, chiefly directed againſt Hume and Voltaire. We ſhall be very deſirous to ſee the continuation of this Poem.

ART. 14. *Poems. By Mrs. G. Sewell, Relict of the Rev. George Sewell, Rector of Byfleet, Surry.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1803.

Theſe Poems appear with a very forcible claim to our reſpect and attention. They are the production of a clergyman's widow, and were not originally intended to be publiſhed by ſubſcription; the neceſſary inference will be drawn by every benevolent reader. But they poſſeſs ſtill other pretenſions; they are elegant, intereſting, and often highly poetical; they evince refined feelings and correct taſte, and may on this account be recommended to every friend of the Muſes.

We give one ſhort ſpecimen, and would willingly give more if we could.

" VERSES ON A PARTICULAR OCCASION.

" When Royalty its gracious ray extends,
And princely power with condeſcenſion blends,
All hearts muſt then the heaven-born light adore,
The ſmile that cheers when Fortune ſmiles no more;
By ſorrows and by fear the heart depreſt,
Shall feel its warmth more grateful than the reſt:
And long the memory of that love retain,
When cold oblivion ſpreads its ſhade in vain.
Thus, mighty Prince, the ſun's reſplendent beam,
The poor man's cordial, and the poet's theme;
Whilſt o'er the nobleſt ſcene it caſts its ray,
And throws the ſplendour of unclouded day;

O'er

O'er the pale ruin ſtill it ſhines as bright,
And gilds the humbleſt cottage with its light."

The volume is inſcribed to her Royal Highneſs the Dutcheſs of York; and a numerous liſt of moſt reſpectable ſubſcribers is prefixed.

ART. 15. *The Suicide, with other Poems. By the Rev. Charles Wickſted Ethelſton, M. A. Rector of Worthenbury.* 8vo. 5s. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

Some of theſe Poems, the author informs us in his Advertiſement, are the offſpring of a juvenile fancy, and appeared, though not exactly in the ſame dreſs, many years ago, in a periodical work. The principal Poem in the collection was occaſioned by reading that prepoſterous and miſchievous work, the Sorrows of Werter. This is in blank verſe, and has ſome vigorous lines. The next is Howard, a Poem, in rhyme, which we think far preferable to the former. The Story of Ivan the Third, is introduced at the end of the Poem, to the extent of twenty pages, we believe almoſt verbatim from Mr. Tooke's Life of Catharine the Second of Ruſſia. This looks too much like book-making. The other compoſitions are of a miſcellaneous kind, chiefly however grave and melancholy; the beſt of the whole is the laſt, which is an Ode to the Genius of Britain, which has certainly a great ſhare of animation, and patriotic feeling.

ART. 16. *Society. A Poem, in Two Parts; with other Poems. By James Kenſey.* 12mo. 3s. Longman and Rees. 1803.

We cannot beſtow on theſe Poems a greater praiſe than that of mediocrity; which, we fear, will hardly ſatisfy the author's wiſhes. They commence with a very long didactic Poem, in two Parts, called Society; and conclude with ſome lighter miſcellaneous pieces. We prefer the latter. The two laſt Sonnets are humorous enough; and the Diſcontented Rabbit is not without merit, both in its deſign and execution.

DRAMATIC.

ART. 17. *The Maid of Briſtol. A Play, in Three Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal in the Haymarket. By James Boaden. With the Addreſs to the Patriotiſm of the Engliſh People, as an Epilogue, by George Colman the Younger.* 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees. 1803.

This piece was repreſented with ſucceſs at the Haymarket Theatre, and probably pleaſed better on the ſtage than it can reaſonably be expected to do in the peruſal. The Epilogue has conſiderable ſpirit. Mr. Boaden has written other and better things before, and doubtleſs will do ſo again.

NOVELS.

NOVELS.

ART. 18. *Barbara Markham, or the Profligate requited. A Novel. Two Volumes.* 8vo. 7s. Vernor and Hood. 1803.

This is a ſtrange inconſiſtent tale, in which a young woman of modeſty and virtue is made to aſſume the dreſs of a man, and aſſociate with ſharpers, blacklegs, and profligates. Yet the moral is good; for the prevailing follies and vices are condemned and puniſhed, and the practice of morality and virtue enforced and recommended.

ART. 19. *Human Frailties. A Novel, in Three Volumes. Interſperſed with Poetry. By the Author of "the Obſervant Pedeſtrian," "Montroſe," "Myſtic Cottager," &c. Three Volumes.* 12mo. 10s. 6d. Dutton. 1803.

We acknowledge that we muſt labour under the imputation, diſgraceful as it may be, of never having either ſeen or heard of the Obſervant Pedeſtrian, Montroſe, or the Myſtical Cottager; and, if "Human Frailties" had not fallen in our way, we ſhould have had no great occaſion to repine. Theſe three volumes poſſeſs the common ingredients to be found in all novels of the kind. Take of fine names, intrigues, hair-breadth eſcapes, love, and marriage, equal quantities; fiat mixtura, repetatur hauſtus, as the patient's ſtomach may be able to bear it. Where it excites ſickneſs or loathing, it will of courſe be diſcontinued; and this we think very likely to happen.

MEDICINE.

ART. 20. *Account of the Introduction of the Cow Pox into India. By George Keir, M. D.* 12mo. 112 pp. Printed at Bombay. 1803.

The public are much indebted to Dr. Keir, for the intereſting account he has given of the introduction and progreſs of vaccine inoculation in various parts of the Eaſt Indies. As the matter or virus could only be procured from Europe, conſiderable difficulty occurred, and many fruitleſs experiments were made, before it was obtained in an active ſtate. It is pleaſing here to obſerve the zeal with which the endeavours of the phyſicians and ſurgeons of Bombay, Ceylon, and other ſettlements, were ſeconded by the Governors and civil officers in the different places. Among theſe, the Honourable Jonathan Duncan, Governor of Bombay, the Marquis of Welleſley, and Lord Elgin, at that time his Majeſty's Ambaſſador at Conſtantinople, are particularly eminent. The ſmall-pox, taken by effluvia, or in the natural way, as it is called, is much more fatal, as well as frequent and general, in India than in Europe; at ſome ſeaſons, deſtroying one third or one fourth of all who are affected with it; and even when communicated by inoculation, deſtroying one in forty of the patients; and not unfrequently entailing ſcrofula, or other ſevere diſeaſes, on

thoſe

thoſe that ſurvive. The introduction of the cow-pox, therefore, which is found to be an infallible antidote or preſervative againſt this cruel diſeaſe, became a matter of general intereſt and concern in thoſe countries. The firſt attempt was, to obtain the matter for inoculation from Conſtantinople, where Lord Elgin had ſucceſsfully introduced the diſeaſe, early in the year 1801. But as in ſo long a paſſage it was likely to become effete and uſeleſs, the matter was ſent from Conſtantinople, to Dr. James Short, at Bagdad, who, early in the year 1802, after ſome abortive trials, fortunately ſucceeded in producing the true vaccine diſeaſe at that place. Freſh matter was forwarded from thence to Mr. Milne, ſurgeon, at Buſſora, who, after eſtabliſhing the diſeaſe there, ſent various parcels of the infecting matter to Bombay. Of more than thirty ſpecimens ſent, one only ſucceeded. Ann Duſthall, the child of a female ſervant of Captain Hardie, was inoculated with the reſt, by Dr. Scott of Bombay, June 14, 1802, and took the diſeaſe; from her, five other children were inoculated, with equal ſucceſs. Care was now taken to keep up a ſucceſſion of patients, and to extend the diſeaſe gradually all over India. "The medical board," Dr. Keir ſays, "impreſſed with a juſt ſenſe of the important conſequence of the acquiſition they had made, and anxious to diffuſe it throughout India, directed virus to be forwarded to Bengal, Fort St. George, Ceylon," &c. in all which, they were powerfully aided by the government of Bombay. Accounts of the diſeaſe were publiſhed in the Perſian, Sanſcrit, and other languages, and diſtributed among the natives; and the country phyſicians were inſtructed in the mode of inoculating. In one diſtrict in Ceylon, above two thouſand perſons were inoculated in the month of October. The diſeaſe has been found equally mild, and equally efficacious in preventing the ſmall-pox, in India as in Europe. "I have not found," one of the correſpondents ſays, "that any cauſe or complaint ſhould operate as an objection to communicating this diſeaſe, where we are in danger from ſmall-pox. We have inoculated young and old, robuſt and delicate, healthy and ſickly ſubjects, and numbers covered with herpetic and pſoric affections of the ſkin; and have not found, that any of theſe circumſtances have altered the appearance or progreſs of the diſeaſe." From the number of perſons that had been inoculated at the time this account was printed, only a little more than twelve months from the reception of the complaint there, and the eagerneſs with which the natives flocked to be admitted to the benefit of the operation, vaccine inoculation ſeems likely to be more generally adopted in India than in this country, where it originated.

ART. 21. *A Treatiſe on the Cow-Pox; containing the Hiſtory of Vaccine Inoculation, and an Account of the various Publications which have appeared on that Subject, in Great Britain and other Parts of the World, By John Ring, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. Part II.* 8vo. 13s. Johnſon. 1803.

In our Review for December, 1801, we gave an account of the firſt volume of this laborious and uſeful publication, in which we have a complete hiſtory of the diſcovery, introduction, and progreſs of vaccine inoculation, not only in this country, but in all parts of the globe;

globe; with analyſes and critical obſervations on all the works that have appeared on the ſubject. In the preſent volume, the editor appears to have neither abated in zeal or induſtry: he purſues his courſe with the ſame ardour; and, regardleſs of the rank of the parties, laſhes indiſcriminately all who oppoſe the diſſemination of the practice of vaccine inoculation, and ſometimes with no ſmall degree of ſeverity. It is remarkable, that the practice of vaccination is leſs general, is purſued with leſs zeal, and even meets with more oppoſition in this country, where the efficacy of it was firſt diſcovered, than in almoſt any other part of the world. "I have lately received," the editor ſays, Preface, p. 5. "a pamphlet, publiſhed by Dr. Anderſon, at Madras; from which it appears, that vaccination is welcomed there with the warmeſt enthuſiaſm; and that the Governors, and medical officers of the Britiſh eſtabliſhments in India, vie with each other in their zealous exertions to promote the practice. This is very different," he adds, "from the reception it met with in our frigid climate! where it firſt occaſioned *a very long and general cold fit*, then *a very ſhort and partial hot fit*, which terminated *in a critical ſweat of a few guineas.*" This, though not wit, ſhows the editor's not unjuſt indignation at our ſupineneſs on a ſubject of ſuch infinite importance to the health and lives of the people. In this volume, the editor has given two plates, neatly and accurately engraved and coloured, repreſenting the progreſs of the vaccine veſicle; alſo a copious Index, referring to all the perſons and circumſtances mentioned in the work.

ART. 22. *A Deſcription of the Muſcles of the Human Body, as they appear on Diſſection; with the Synonyma of Cowper, Winſlow, Douglas, Albinus, and Innes; and the new Nomenclature of Dumas, Profeſſor of Anatomy at Montpellier. With Prints and Maps, ſhowing the Inſertions of Muſcles. By Joſeph Conſtantine Carpue, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, Surgeon to his Majeſty's Forces, and Teacher of Anatomy.* 4to. 12s. Longman and Rees. 1801.

This work, the ſcope of which is fully explained in the title-page, will afford conſiderable aſſiſtance to the ſtudent in anatomy. The maps merely ſhow the inſertions of the muſcles; the ſhape, ſize, connexion, and particular appearances of which muſt (he obſerves) be ſtudied in the diſſecting-room.

ART. 23. *Hiſtorical Surgery, or the Progreſs of the Science of Medicine, on Inflammation, Mortification, and Gun-ſhot Wounds. By John Hunt.* 4to. 407 pp. Loughborough printed; Rivingtons, London.

The title of this work is comprehenſive and inviting; but we fear that they who expect from this author a hiſtory of ſurgery, or a methodical account of the progreſs of that branch of medicine, will be grievouſly diſappointed. Yet there is no lack of words; on the contrary, we are preſented with 407 pages in quarto, conſiſting almoſt entirely of extracts from Wiſeman, Sharp, Bromfield, Pott, and J. Hunter, interſperſed with a few obſervations by the compiler. Then follow, without the leaſt attention to order or connection, a ſtring of remarks on the treatment of what is termed the phlogiſtic diatheſis by bleeding, anti-

antimonials, &c. on the uſe of the bark in intermittents, putrid fevers, &c. on the employment of opium in viſceral inflammation, and ſome other diſorders; on the effects of digitalis in pulmonary conſumption; on certain ſtates of the lues venerea and rheumatiſm, &c. &c. &c. In ſhort, under the title of "Hiſtorical Surgery," the author has publiſhed *his common-place book.*

ART. 24. *An Eſſay on the proximate Cauſe of Animal Impregnation; being the Subſtance of a Paper read and diſcuſſed in the Medical Society at Guy's Hoſpital, in October, 1799. By John Pulley, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons.* 4to. 31 pp. 2s. Cox. 1801.

The author's deſign in the preſent Eſſay is, to prove the inſufficiency of the doctrines delivered by Dr. Darwin, Dr. Haighton, and ſuch other phyſiologiſts as aſſign excluſively to one ſex the power of reproduction. He contends, that the embryo is not derived from the "ſeminal animalcule" of Lewenhoeck, nor from the "living filament" emitted from the male, as the author of Zoonomia fancifully deſcribes; nor, on the other hand, from the formative power of the female, without the immediate contact of the ſemen maſculinum, as ſome living phyſiologiſts maintain; and concludes, that impregnation can only be effected by the ſeminal fluid of the male coming into actual contact with the contained matter of the ovum or veſicle of the female, through the medium of the fimbriated extremity of the Fallopian tube.

In the courſe of his enquiries, Mr. Pulley obſerves that Buffon's theory of "organic molecules" ſeems to have been taken from Highmore, whoſe Hiſtory of Generation was publiſhed in 1651.

DIVINITY.

ART. 25. *A Sermon, preached in the Cathedral of Peterborough, on Wedneſday, October 19, 1803; the Day appointed for a General Faſt. By the Rev. Spencer Madan, A. M. Prebendary of that Cathearal.* 8vo. 23 pp. 1s. Jocob, Peterborough. 1803.

This preacher, whoſe abilities are extenſively known and admired, ſtates, that the text (Habakkuk iii. 2) has given occaſion to ſome difference of interpretation, and of comments. But the general ſenſe of it being plain, he does not detain his readers by any critical obſervations; which however, in a cathedral, might, we conceive, have been ventured, without impropriety. But the main purport of the diſcourſe, the enforcement of our duties, is executed with ſagacity and vigour. From two great points, our proper ſenſe of fear, when we hear "*the ſpeech* of God;" and our hope of "mercy in the midſt of wrath;" are drawn the fitteſt inferences for a due obſervance of the ſolemnity of the day. The diſcourſe ſhows the preacher to be well acquainted with the preſent, as well as the paſt manners of our nation; of which acquaintance, the following paſſage exhibits a ſtriking ſpecimen: "At the preſent æra, it is in our chriſtian character, it is chiefly in practical religion, that we fail. The ſpeculative doc-

trines

trines of a falſe philoſophy are unhappily a prominent feature of the age; but ſtill the obligations of religion are better known than noticed. For the moſt part, we feel our duty, though we fail to practice it—though we diſregard, we do not diſbelieve—though we are defaulters, we are not apoſtates! Thouſands (I am well perſuaded) would defend with their lives the Temple of Religion, who daily by the tenor of thoſe lives undermine its intereſt, and betray its cauſe! It might be ſuperfluous, to wiſh the great body of the nation more loyal than they are, more warmly attached to their King and Country; but, to prove their attachment as they ought, they muſt be more obedient to their God. Would they but ſerve that God with half the zeal with which they oppoſe the artifice of ſedition, the dagger of treaſon, and the ſword of invaſion, we might indeed aſſure ourſelves that all would yet be well!" P. 20.

ART. 26. *An Admonition to Parents and Children; chiefly intended for the lower Claſſes of Society. By James Cowe, M. A. Vicar of Sunbury, Middleſex.* 8vo. 25 pp. 1s. Rivingtons. 1803.

At the cloſe of a Charity Sermon, lately preached at Hampton, this Admonition was addreſſed to the poor parents and their children. It ſtates their reciprocal duties in a plain and affecting manner; and will be a very uſeful preſent from benevolent perſons to their indigent neighbours. We recommend it to be among their *New Year's Gifts*, on the approaching occaſion.

ART. 27. *The Chriſtian Faith: or, the Catechiſm of the United Church of England and Ireland, briefly proved and explained from Scripture: addreſſed principally to Parents, Maſters of Families, and Inſtructors of Youth. By the Rev. Samuel Turner, A. M. Chaplain to the Earl of Scarborough, Rector of Rothwell, Lincolnſhire, and Vicar of Attenborough cum Bramcote, in the County of Nottingham.* 12mo. 62 pp. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

"The deſign of this work is, to point out to the young and ignorant the nature and obligation of that vow which their godfathers and godmothers at their baptiſm undertook for them, the doctrines they are required to believe, and the duties they are bound to perform." P. 7. And, in the next page, Mr. T. ſays, "My ſole object [objects] in this manual is [are], brevity and utility. The deſign propoſed is executed in a commendable manner; brevity and utility are ſucceſsfully ſtudied; and though we had, before this, a good proviſion of expoſitions of the Catechiſm, yet we muſt acknowledge, that a Pariſh-Miniſter is well employed, who adds but a mite to ſo uſeful and neceſſary a ſtock.

ART. 28. *Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor. The Cottager's Religious Meditations.* 12mo. 84 pp. 6s. Hatchard, &c. 1803.

The title of this tract would have been more complete, if after the word "Meditations" had been added, on ſelect paſſages of Holy Scripture. The editor does not claim much originality; but acknowledges his obligations to Dr. Doddridge, Mr. Giſborne, and the author

thor of Sermons on the Doctrines and Duties of Chriſtianity. Such names will ſufficiently recommend this book; and we need only add, that it is a very ſuitable preſent to cottagers, and worthy of the excellent Society from which it proceeds.

ART. 29. *The Millennium, or chearful Proſpects of the Reign of Truth, Peace, and Righteouſneſs; and ſerious Reflections on the Commencement of the New Century. Two Diſcourſes, preached, the Firſt on November 5, 1800, and the Second on January 4, 1801, in the New Chapel, Bridport. With Notes. By Thomas Howe.* 8vo. 62 pp. 1s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

The text of the firſt of theſe ſermons (the author of which is a Diſſenting Miniſter) is taken from Rev. xi. 15, one of the chief paſſages in Scripture, upon which the opinion of a Millennium is founded. The great earthquake, which is to precede this happy ſtate, the author interprets to mean "great commotions, changes and revolutions in the world." This period of *woe*, he thinks, has already commenced, and he anticipates, with ſome confidence, the glorious æra which is to follow it. There will then, he thinks, be a general diffuſion of knowledge and truth, a general eſtabliſhment of liberty and peace, and a general prevalence of piety and virtue. Some good practical admonitions are deduced from theſe premiſes; and we ſee not any thing objectionable, except an inſinuation, that the Unity of the Deity is not maintained by "all Proteſtants (p. 18) and that *we* retain doctrines of the Romiſh Church, which muſt be ſupported by arguments ſimilar to thoſe by which tranſubſtantiation is vindicated by the Catholics." This is like the inſinuation of a Socinian, which we are ſorry to ſee approved by "a Society of Proteſtant Diſſenters." The ſecond ſermon is on the commencement of the Century (Eccles. i. 4) and has many very juſt religious reflections and exhortations.

ART. 30. *The Sum and Subſtance of the Prophecies relating to the Laſt Times; or, Gleanings from the Works of the celebrated Mr. Mede and his Diſciples.* 12mo. 24 pp. 6d. Hazard, Bath; Williams, London. 1803.

Theſe extracts are gleaned from Mr. Mede, Dr. Goodwin, Peter Jurieu, Mr. Fleming, and an anonymous writer in 1692; and the deſign of them is, to eſtabliſh this point, that the year 455 was the epoch of the 1242 Julian years of the Romiſh triumphs.

POLITICS.

ART. 31. *A few curſory Remarks upon the State of Parties, during the Adminiſtration of the Right Honourable Henry Addington. By a near Obſerver. Sixth Edition.* 84 pp. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1803.

In the examination of political writers it is ſcarcely poſſible, nor, indeed, always deſirable, ſo far to ſeparate their literary from their political merits, as to diſcuſs the former without adverting to the latter; or

or diſcloſing thoſe ſentiments on the ſubject of controverſy which the peruſal is calculated to excite. But of ſo peculiar a kind is the tract before us, ſo various are the emotions which ariſe from the peruſal of it, that we have almoſt wiſhed to paſs it over, or to diſcuſs it ſolely as a literary compoſition. The author ſtyles himſelf "A near Obſerver;" and he muſt have been ſomething more, even a confidential friend of the parties, if he could *know* all the facts which he aſſerts; and, if he *knew*, we hardly think he could have had permiſſion to divulge them.

The "Curſory Remarks" appears to have been written for two objects; the firſt (which we think laudable) is, to diſplay the merits of the preſent adminiſtration in the ſtrongeſt and cleareſt light. The ſecond (reſpecting which we entertain a different opinion) is to throw as much odium as poſſible on the conduct of thoſe members of the late miniſtry who have oppoſed the meaſures of their ſucceſſors; and peculiarly to ſtigmatize Mr. Pitt, for not having given them of late an unqualified ſupport.

The author begins, by drawing as dark a picture as poſſible of the ſtate of affairs, at the time of the late Miniſters reſignation, in order to heighten the merit of thoſe who then undertook to conduct them. To aſcertain how far this picture is juſt, and in what parts the colours are overcharged, would lead to a diſcuſſion far beyond our limits. The time was, in ſome reſpects, critical; but the only circumſtances which tended greatly to depreſs the public mind, were that reſignation, and his Majeſty's dangerous illneſs; the latter of which could be removed by Providence alone. We are far, however, from denying or depreciating thoſe patriotic motives which influenced, and that firmneſs which marked the conduct of the preſent Miniſters, in accepting their ſituations at ſuch a period. Though there was no room for deſpondency, it was certainly a period which demanded ſpirit and exertion. From premiſes like theſe, the author infers, and takes upon himſelf poſitively to aſſert, that Mr. P. and Lord G. ſolemnly promiſed their "conſtant, active, and zealous ſupport" to the preſent Miniſters. On the foregoing ſtrong and unqualified aſſertion (which has ſince been ſo expreſsly denied by ſeveral writers) we will only remark, that it is not, to its full extent, warranted by the premiſes; and if the author relies upon private information, he has not enabled us to judge how far that information is likely to be correct. On the ſuppoſition of this unqualified promiſe, this author introduces a variety of inſinuations and aſſertions, not altogether the moſt liberal or even juſt; namely, that the new Miniſters were intended to be ſupported no longer than while they appeared weak and deciduous; that the aſſigned motive of the former Miniſter's reſignation was not the real one, that Lord Grenville's * Speech on the Ruſſian Treaty, "ſtigmatized Miniſters with every ſpecies of acrimony and contempt." He next examines the queſtion, whether they who approved the *Project* at Liſle, could conſiſtently condemn the Treaty of Amiens? and, of courſe, decides it in the negative. The defence (which follows) of the preſent Adminiſtration, from the charge of

* See Brit. Crit. vol. xx. p. 367.

having

having concealed the ſtate of public affairs, is, we think, ſufficiently juſt. His Majeſty's Speech certainly contained an intimation, that the affairs of the continent were not in a ſatisfactory ſtate, ſince it was deemed neceſſary to keep a vigilant eye upon them.

The charge againſt three noble Lords (for no other parliamentary leaders are there mentioned or alluded to) of abetting, what the author calls, "the inſurrection of jobbers," againſt the Board of Admiralty, is wholly unſupported by proof; and the unqualified condemnation of all the Public Boards under the direction of that department, on an allegation of "rebellion" againſt their ſuperiors, without producing the leaſt evidence to ſupport it, deſerves the ſevereſt cenſure. It however defeats itſelf; for who will believe, that a man of the firmneſs and deciſion which characterize the preſent firſt Lord of the Admiralty, would for a moment ſuffer any wilful diſobedience to go unpuniſhed *?

In the ſucceeding part of this tract, the author ſtates the occurrences of the laſt Seſſion of Parliament, and reaſons upon them juſtly (as we think) in ſome reſpects, but with much unmerited acrimony againſt Mr. Pitt, concluding him wholly to have abandoned the miniſtry, and to have entered into a ſyſtematic oppoſition, which has never appeared to be the fact. The ſuppoſed negociation for the return of Mr. Pitt to office is then ſtated, and alledged to have been broken off upon a demand being made by him, that *all* the new oppoſition ſhould be admitted. As this whole account reſts upon the aſſertion of an anonymous writer (who himſelf admits that he treads on tender ground) we ſhall not accompany it with any remark. Neither ſhall we examine the juſtice of the author's cenſures on the parliamentary conduct of Mr. Windham and others, which is before the public.

Almoſt all the reſt of this tract conſiſts of perſonal attacks and cenſures on Mr. P. and ſeems deſigned to widen the breach (if a breach really exiſts) between him and the preſent Miniſter. Far different are our opinions and wiſhes. According with the political principles, and highly reſpecting the perſonal characters of both theſe leaders, we would addreſs them in the affectionate words of the old progenitor of the Romans to his deſcendants:

——— ne tanta animis aſſueſcite bella;
Neu patriæ validas in viſcera vertite vires.

As this tract is already ſo well known to the public, it is almoſt needleſs to add, that it is written with great ability, and aſcribed to a political writer of conſiderable eminence.

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* We believe we are warranted in aſſerting, that, excepting one caſe not at all relating to official conduct, not a member of thoſe Boards has been diſplaced by the preſent Board of Admiralty.

ART.

ART. 32. *A Brief Anſwer to "a few Curſory Remarks on the preſent State of Parties, by a Near Obſerver."* 8vo. 56 pp. 2s. Budd. 1803.

Diſclaiming "any knowledge of ſecret hiſtory, or any ſources of information but thoſe which are open to every one of their countrymen," this author undertakes the taſk of replying to the "Curſory Remarks;" and of expoſing the injuſtice and malevolence of thoſe attacks which are levelled, he ſays, "againſt characters the moſt illuſtrious that have ever graced this or any other country."

That, when the late miniſtry reſigned, "we had many difficulties to ſurmount, and many dangers to encounter," this writer does not deny; but he denies (juſtly we think) that the nation was exhauſted by her exertions, or that our ſituation was ſo deſperate as it is repreſented by his adverſary.

As to the "promiſe of ſupport" ſaid to have been given by Mr. P. and Lord G. to their ſucceſſors, the author before us, with great probability, ſuppoſes that the only promiſe muſt have been, "to throw no impediment in the way of the preſent miniſters, while they acted upon the principles, and adopted the line of conduct, which their predeceſſors had purſued." This, however probable, is but *a priori* reaſoning. The terms of the promiſe have not, as we have heard, been divulged by any of the parties who alone could know them. This writer further argues, that, if an unqualified promiſe was really made, it ought not to have been kept, as being againſt conſcience and duty.

He goes on to defend Mr. Windham, and others who approved (or who, diſapproving, acquieſced in) the *projet* at Liſle, from the charge of inconſiſtency in condemning the treaty of Amiens; ſince (even if they were ſimilar) the author deems "a place in the cabinet and a ſeat on the oppoſition bench perfectly different ſituations." Undoubtedly they are ſo; and certainly, we are too apt to view with partiality a meaſure ſuggeſted by our friends, though we might have condemned it if adopted by ſtrangers or adverſaries. But this is perhaps the firſt time that ſuch a conduct has been defended as juſt and laudable: and this is perhaps the firſt inſtance in which the very ſame, or a nearly ſimilar meaſure to that which miniſters had attempted themſelves, was deemed, by any of them, the juſt foundation of a ſyſtematic oppoſition to the government of their ſucceſſors.

The ſubſequent parliamentary conduct of Mr. Windham, and his objections, both to the time of commencing and the mode of conducting the preſent war, are defended upon juſter grounds. But the principal point laboured by this writer is, the vindication of Mr. Pitt's ſuppoſed refuſal to reſume the reigns of government, unleſs the new oppoſition were likewiſe recalled. He argues, that it was impoſſible Mr. P. could join Mr. Addington, becauſe he is ſuppoſed to diſapprove ſome of his late meaſures, although he ſtrenuouſly defended (and is believed to have adviſed) the peace, certainly the leading meaſure of his friend's adminiſtration. Yet there is, in the opinion of this writer, no inconſiſtency in an union between thoſe who ſupported and thoſe who oppoſed the treaty of Amiens, for the purpoſe of diſplacing

placing the miniſter who made it. That treaty alone (it ſhould be remembered) was, for a long time, the chief and only oſtenſible ground of difference between the preſent miniſters and what is called the new oppoſition: on that point, the former had the ſtrenuous ſupport of Mr. Pitt; and he has not yet *declared* a decided oppoſition to them, and coincidence with their opponents, on any meaſure of equal importance.

Such are the inconſiſtencies of party writers. We cenſured ſome of the aſſertions of the author of the "Curſory Remarks;" but we find as much, at leaſt, to diſprove in his adverſaries.

ART. 33. *Obſervations on a Miniſterial Pamphlet, entitled "Curſory Remarks of a near Obſerver upon the State of Parties during the Adminiſtration of the Right Honourable Henry Addington." By an Anxious Spectator.* 8vo. 44 pp. 2s. Ginger. 1803.

This "Anxious Spectator," like the author of the preceding Anſwer to the *near Obſerver*, is involved in the inconſiſtency of juſtifying the ſuppoſed hoſtility of Mr. P. to the preſent Miniſters, on the ground of their delinquency in making the late Treaty of Peace; a meaſure which had that great ſtateſman's ſtrenuous ſupport. He begins his attack, by charging them with having "ſupplicated an inglorious and deluſive peace." Surely, as the advocate of Mr. Pitt, he is (as the lawyers would call it) *eſtopped* from this charge by the conduct of his client. His ſupport of it was ſo much beyond a mere *acquieſcence* (as this author would repreſent it) that poſſibly he never took more pains to defend a favourite meaſure of his own.

This writer cenſures, however, with great juſtice, one expreſſion of the "*near Obſerver*," namely, that "whoever confided in the duration of the late Peace is *Nature's* fool, and not Mr. Addington's." That ſtrong and unqualified expreſſion was certainly unjuſtifiable. The late Peace may be conſidered as a fair and reaſonable, though unſucceſsful experiment; the failure of which brings at leaſt this conſolation, that all parties are now united in proſecuting the War.

There is little elſe in this pamphlet worthy of notice, except a diſcovery that Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox, "though often different in detail, and placed on different ſides of the Houſe, are in the main agreed!" We congratulate the author on this diſcovery, and ſhall not controvert the reaſoning by which he has attained it; which amounts to this: "that theſe two ſtateſmen have viewed the moſt important occurrence of their own times in directly oppoſite lights." By this argument, their *agreement* is conſidered by this ſapient author as fully proved!!!

ART. 34. *The Queſtion, Why do we go to War? temperately diſcuſſed, according to the Official Correſpondence. Second Edition.* 8vo. 30 pp. 1s. Wallis. 1803.

Whether from curioſity, to ſee what this ſolitary advocate of Bonaparte could alledge, or becauſe report had aſſigned this pamphlet to a perſon of conſiderable talents, we know not, but it ſeems, by the title-page, to have reached a ſecond edition; an honour which ſome adventitious circumſtance, not its own merit, muſt have procured: for more

more flimſy and ſuperficial arguments, more palpable miſrepreſentations, and more unwarranted aſſertions (expreſſed, for the moſt part, in bald and inelegant language) it has not often been our lot to peruſe. In the Preface to this edition, the author aſſerts that his work (though very ſhort, and ſold at a moderate price) was not meant "to be addreſſed to the lower orders, but to the *Magnates* of the realm." The ſtyle, however, and the arguments, are adapted ſolely *ad captandum vulgus*, and neither could pleaſe, nor, we think, for a moment deceive, any well-informed perſon. We will give a few ſpecimens of this author's arguments, without profeſſing (as indeed is needleſs) to purſue and expoſe them in detail.

The very firſt charge againſt the French government (the confiſcation of our merchant veſſels) is ſtated, with an affected cenſure of its impolicy, on the part of France, but in other reſpects with all the partiality of an advocate. "We did not ſtipulate," ſays the author, "that the French ſhould take off at the peace the prohibitions they had lain on in time of war." But was the continuance of thoſe prohibitions (which in effect rendered goods ſent to one of our iſlands liable to confiſcation) conſiſtent with that peace and *friendſhip* which is ſtipulated in the very firſt article? Or was the confiſcation of veſſels driven in by ſtreſs of weather, or having a few articles on board for private uſe, conformable to any idea of juſtice between nations? Becauſe government did not ſo far reſent theſe proceedings, as to retain our conqueſts, muſt the nation, although they remain unredreſſed, and even aggravated, for ever ſubmit to them?

The inſidious and inſolent meaſure of ſending the pretended commercial agents (to a country whoſe manufactures were proſcribed, and whoſe ſhips were ſeized at the ſame time in every port of France) is of courſe palliated by this writer; who, becauſe M. Coquebert Montbret was ſent for the *profeſſed* purpoſe of negociating a treaty of commerce, *candidly* inſinuates, that the failure of that negociation was occaſioned by the fault of our Miniſters.

But of all this author's miſrepreſentations (we might have uſed a ſtronger term) the groſſeſt is that wherein he is pleaſed to ſtate the anſwer given to the French remonſtrances againſt the freedom of our preſs. He has the aſſurance to aſſert, that "*we* inſinuate *we* mean to continue to abuſe them." This is no *inſinuation*, but a direct aſſertion, that our government identified itſelf which the writers complained of, and whoſe conduct, the author himſelf admits, is condemned. But there never was a more unjuſt accuſation. Miniſters, on the contrary, although they very properly recommended the treating of moſt of theſe attacks with contempt (as they were uſually treated by our own government) repeatedly offered every redreſs which the laws would allow, and did actually prove their ſincerity by a very ſerious proſecution. The very expreſſions of the Conſul's repreſentative cited by this author (pp. 9 and 10) could point only to ſome additional reſtraints on the freedom of the preſs. But there is no end of the objections that ariſe to this work. The inſulting declaration, that "England cannot ſingly contend againſt the power of France," is conſidered by this writer as too puerile for notice. Is then the Firſt Conſul ſuch a boy, or ſuch an idiot,

as to iſſue an *official* declaration to his own ſenate, and in the ſight of all Europe, without an object or a meaning? Can any one in the leaſt acquainted with his character, doubt that he had two very important objects in view: firſt, to accuſtom the Britiſh nation to every ſpecies of inſult; and, ſecondly, to degrade that nation (by its endurance of ſuch inſults) and lower its eſtimation in the world? If this, and other public inſults, were not ſubſtantial cauſes of war (and an inſult on national honour is deemed almoſt the only one by Mr. Fox) they certainly, combined together (for it is fair, notwithſtanding what this author ſays, to combine them) form a chain of proofs, evincing that hoſtile mind which was cheriſhed by the Conſul during peace, and which rendered the continuance of peace impoſſible.

We ſhall not enter into the arguments of this writer reſpecting the caſe of Malta, or the aggreſſions of the Conſul in various parts of Europe; arguments which have often been refuted, as well in the Declaration of Government, as in various other publications. The conduct and the report of Sebaſtiani, publiſhed in the face of the world by the Conſular Government, indicated (the author aſſerts) no deſigns againſt Egypt or the Seven Iſlands; the poſſeſſion of Egypt (nay even of India) by France, he thinks, perfectly harmleſs to this country; and of all the aggreſſions and all the oppreſſions committed by the Conſul on neutral ſtates, during the preſent war, the ſole blame is imputed to Great Britain! Need we add more? There is hardly a line in this work (except a very few at the concluſion) which is not calculated to excite the indignation of every friend to his country. To that indignation, or rather to the contempt of every generous mind, we will now leave it.

ART. 35. *Elements of Oppoſition.* 8vo. 99 pp. 3s. Hatchard. 1803.

It is ſome relief, and to reviewers more eſpecially, when politics takes the form of wit or humour. We can look back, almoſt with envy, to the time when Tickell's admirable burleſque, "Anticipation," made its appearance; and can imagine the gravity of the critics of that day relaxed into hearty laughter, at ſuch a mode of attacking an oppoſition. For ourſelves, we would not have it too currently ſuſpected, that we ever laugh; but we will not deny, that we have been ſeveral times in danger of it, from inſpecting the leaves of this tract. It conſiſts of an ironical attack, upon all thoſe who have waged direct parliamentary, or extra-parliamentary war, againſt the preſent adminiſtration; and offers to the reader no leſs than fifty-three rules for conducting an oppoſition; drawn, or profeſſed to be drawn, from the ſpeeches or writings of the perſons above-mentioned. Though the TO PEAOION, mentioned in the Preface, is very ſucceſsfully hit off, yet we will not undertake to promiſe that every reader will laugh at it; becauſe,

— medio de fonte leporum
Surgit amari aliquid, quod in ipſis floribus angat;

Sometimes even becauſe, perhaps,

— conſcius ipſe animus ſe forte remordet;

but

but the majority will certainly be entertained by the exemplifications of ſuch rules as theſe. 1. How to get patriotic aſſiſtance without doors. 2. How to hold patriotic conſultations. 3. How to deſcribe a prime miniſter. 4. How to deſcribe a whole adminiſtration, &c. &c. &c.

INVASION.

ART. 36. *Obſervations on the Reſtriction of Volunteer Corps: Being a Poſtſcript to an Addreſs to the People of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland on the threatened Invaſion.* 8vo. 16 pp. 3d, or 15s. the Hundred. Downes, Spragg, Aſperne, Hatchard. 1803.

As in the Addreſs alluded to in the title-page, this patriotic author had appealed to the ſpirit of his countrymen, ſo he now appeals to their good ſenſe, in order to convince them that no diſſatisfaction ought to prevail on account of the offers of Volunteer Corps, which have been made to Government, not having been accepted to their full extent.

To prove this, he ſtates the object of the General Defence Act, the powers given by that Act to the Crown to "draw out, aſſemble, and embody all the perſons ſo enrolled," and alſo the power given to ſuſpend "ſuch of the proviſions of the Act as require the men enrolled to be trained, exerciſed, drawn out, &c." on condition that a volunteer force be raiſed amounting to three fourths of the firſt claſs, or (by a ſubſequent Act) to even a leſs number. Hence he ſhows that the volunteer force is, in its nature, of a limited extent, and that it has been judiciouſly fixed at ſix times the number of the Militia. This limitation is to be conſidered as a relief rather than a reſtriction. "It was due to the ardour which ſtimulated all ranks of people to preſs forward as Volunteers, to make he neceſſity for ſuch ſervice the boundary of its extent."

He then ſtates briefly the other reaſons which have operated to produce a limitation; namely, that if the Volunteer ſervice had been unlimited, it would have become ſo general as materially to interpoſe both with the Militia and the Army of Reſerve, on account of the exemptions, which it was but fair to grant to Volunteers; and alſo that it was adviſeable to keep the expence (to Government) which, taking the kingdom through, he eſtimates at five pounds per annum annually, within moderate bounds.

From this juſt reaſoning he infers, in a manly and ſenſible appeal to his countrymen, that "the reſtrictions which Government have thought proper to impoſe upon their voluntary ſervices, ſhould not in the leaſt damp that ardour which they have ſo nobly diſplayed." This limitation, he properly argues, "is not to be conſidered as a rejection." It amounts only to this; that the perſons who may not be ſelected "have not an opportunity, *in the firſt inſtance*, of gratifying their loyal and patriotic feelings." But, though not in the advanced

guard, they form a great body of reſerve. Though not in the foremoſt ranks, they are a part of the main army, to be called out as circumſtances may require.

A ſtatement of the different Acts of Parliament relating to Volunteers and their exemptions concludes this well-intended and judicious tract; a work which we earneſtly recommend to all upon whoſe minds the leaſt doubt or diſſatisfaction remains on this intereſting ſubject.

ART. 37. *Advice to Engliſh Day-Labourers; concerning Buonaparte's Invaſion. Fifth Edition.*

We reprint the whole of this, as a paper of great utility.

" Countrymen and Friends;

" They ſay that there are ſome among you, (not many, nor of the beſt or wiſer ſort) who talk thus;—" Let Buonaparte come, and conquer England: WE cannot be worſe off than we are at preſent: ſo, we will neither be Militia-men, nor Soldiers; but will let things happen as they may."

" Now if you ſhould hear any man talk ſo, who has neither father, mother, wife, child, nor ſweetheart whom he loves; and who ſpends all his earnings in getting drunk; you may take that man's advice, and follow his example, if you pleaſe. But if you *have* any ſuch, or ever hope to have them; then I adviſe you to conſider, firſt, What will be THEIR Lot, if Buonaparte ſhould conquer us; and next, what will be YOUR OWN.

" I ſuppoſe that you are convinced, that he does not love Engliſhmen *better* than other people. Perhaps, when he comes, he will tell you another tale; but you are not uſed to believe all that is told you by *Frenchmen*. Well then: he has treated other people whom he conquered, or who ſurrendered to him, in this manner: he gives his ſoldiers leave to raviſh every woman, or girl, who comes in their way; and then—to cut her throat. The *little Children* and every old perſon, periſh (of courſe) by hunger and cold; unleſs ſome *compaſſionate* French Soldier ſhortens their miſery by his bayonet. (And, to do them juſtice, they are very compaſſionate in that way.) They did this in *Switzerland*, *Italy*, *Egypt*, and other countries. And they are juſt now doing it in *Hanover*; which was, (a few weeks ago,) almoſt as happy as we are, under the dominion of our own Glorious King George.

" If you will not hazard your lives, to preſerve all who are dear to you from ſuch a dreadful fate; then, refuſe to take up arms; grumble at the laws about Militia, Supplementary-Militia, Army of Reſerve, and Army in Maſs; look out for the French Gun-boats; and *hail* them to the ſhores of Britain. But if you are men of a different kidney;—fly to arms directly, under officers whom the King ſends to you; let Buonaparte hear, that every Engliſhman is prepared to receive him as he deſerves; and then,—he will excuſe himſelf from coming at all.

" BUT

" BUT if he ſhould come, and conquer us; how will he treat YOU, after deſtroying all the old perſons, and the women and children in his way? why certainly, he cannot *truſt* ſuch of you as may chooſe to ſide with him, or to ſtand neuter; becauſe, he will be ſure you are—what Engliſhmen are not uſed to be—cowards and ſcoundrels. Then he will treat you, as he did his three thouſand eight hundred priſoners of war, in that diſgraceful expedition to Egypt, from which he afterwards run away like a Felon: he could neither conveniently take theſe brave men with him, nor ſafely leave them behind him:—he will march you to a riſing ground, or plain; draw you up, unarmed, over-againſt his own ſoldiers; who, at his word of command, will ſhoot moſt of you at one volley, and diſpatch the reſt by the bayonet. This was juſt half an hour's amuſement to him, near Jaffa; and he has now the very ſame ſoldiers under him, ready to do again the ſame thing in England.

" But ſuppoſe he *ſhould truſt* you; and enliſt you under his colours; and you ſhould fight under his command; and win many hard battles againſt your countrymen, and old friends, and your own ſons; killing them by thouſands;—why then, as long as you are able to fight for him, and have a life to loſe; you may do ſo; and he will give you fine names; ſuch as, the heroes of *Liberty* and *Equality*; the *Invincible Legion*, and ſo forth. But the moment you receive a *wound*, that diſables you from ſerving, (and I truſt you would ſoon receive ſuch from true Engliſhmen) then Buonaparte will ſhut you up in a Hoſpital; (one of our county-hoſpitals; where, at preſent, Day-labourers, when ſick, or lame, are lodged, fed, and cured, for nothing) and though I am ſure he could not find an Engliſh apothecary yet he would ſoon find a *French* one (perhaps not the *firſt* he aſked) who would daſh your broth at ſupper with ſuch a mixture, as would put many hundreds of you *quite out of pain* before the next morning. This alſo he did at Jaffa; and this he is ready to do with you. In ſhort; the lives of his fellow creatures are of no value in his ſight. He cares for nothing, but how to gratify his own mad ambition. If *Boſton* church (one of the biggeſt in the kingdom) could be filled with men, women, and children, (whether his foes or friends, he would not care) from ſide to ſide, and end to end; the ſteeple alſo, and the roof being covered with them;—and if their deſtruction could help him to win one battle, and to add one country, or city, or even (with Sir Sidney Smith's leave) the town of St. John d'Acre, to his dominions; he would blow them all up with as much unconcern, as you ever ſnuffed a farthing candle. This is the man who threatens to invade *England*.—Now; Labourers! honeſt, brave fellows! who love your children, and your good country-women, the beſt women in the world; and who are not tired of your own lives; take your choice:—enrol yourſelves inſtantly: be trained to arms: and be ready to fight Buonaparte: or elſe; within two months, he will murder you, and all who are dear to you."

S. P.

Wigtoft; Auguſt, 1803.

ART.

AGRICULTURE.

ART. 38. *An Inquiry into the Propriety of applying Waſtes to the better Maintenance and Support of the Poor. With Inſtances of the great Effects which have attended their Acquiſition of Property, in keeping them from the Pariſh, even in the preſent Scarcity. Being the Subſtance of ſome Notes taken in a Tour in the Year* 1800. *By Arthur Young, Eſq. F. R. S.* 8vo. 160 pp. 2s. 6d. Richardſons. 1801.

In a journey made in the year 1800, Mr. Young "examined the effect of above a hundred and forty parliamentary encloſures on the production of human food—on population—on the poor rates—and on the ſituation and comforts of the poor:" whether the journey laſted three, ſix, or twelve months, we are not told; though ſuch information would have been ſatisfactory. But taking the middle term, we think the examination muſt have been very curſory and ſuperficial. The main, and indeed ſole object of this tract is, to ſhow that "the great engine wherewith the poor may be governed and provided for the moſt eaſily, and the moſt cheaply, is *property*. We confeſs ourſelves to be among thoſe, who think ſuch a ſcheme "wild and viſionary." At p. 59, the author has ſtated a difficulty which appears to us inſuperable: "What is to be done with the cottage or land, when the father of the family dies?" But ſuppoſing land could be aſſigned to every cottager now living; where is it to be found for every one of his children, for all future generations? If allotments ſhould be "inalienable from the cottage, and to be held and occupied only by the inhabitant;" what is to be done for the inhabitants of *new* cottages? Or, is the number of them never to be increaſed? A much more feaſible plan is touched upon at p. 37, adapted to *all* ſituations; "to let every cottager, at a fair rent, land enough for a rood or half an acre of potatoes, and the food of one or two cows, fenced." We ſhould ſay *one* cow. Mr. Y. adds, "and to find the live ſtock and feed." If he means that the *landlord* ſhall do this, we differ from him entirely. This ſhould be the inducement with all young labourers, and young women of the ſame condition, to ſave a little money*. We approve of the plan by Mr. Cuſtance (p. 112) who has "taken the inhabitants from being tenants to the farmers to be tenants to the landlord." The difference cannot eaſily be calculated. Viſionary and miſchievous as Mr. Young is, in many of his agricultural ſchemes, he ſeems to be even more ſo in thoſe which relate to religion: "thoſe true old Church of England doctrines, which Mr. Wilberforce calls *vital Chriſtianity*, are the doctrines for the poor; and, when preached with feeling, will make their way to the hearts of men, who find nothing in the common pulpit morals that will call them to public worſhip." P. 90. Not to mention, that the call to prayers, and praiſes, and reading of the Scriptures, is here entirely

* See our 7th vol. p. 135.

diſre-

diſregarded; as being no part (perhaps) of *vital Chriſtianity;* it ſeems expreſſed, as if *the poor* required a peculiar ſet of doctrines for their uſe. We had received it as a part of our creed, that "the rich and poor met together; and that the Lord is the Maker (Teacher, and Saviour) of them all." But Mr. Young will blurt forth any abſurdity, rather than fail to diſparage the clergy, for the ſhare they ſtill retain of TITHES; which ſhare whenever they ſhall have relinquiſhed throughout the kingdom, and ſhall ceaſe to have any common intereſt with impropriators; who will enſure to them, for another century, the lands which ſhould now given in the way of commutation?

MISCELLANIES.

ART. 39. *Obſervations on the Drama, with a View to its more beneficial Effects on the Morals and Manners of Society. In Three Parts. By Edward Green, Correſponding Member of the Literary and Philoſophical Society of Manchester.* 8vo. 60 pp. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

It is ſome time ſince we heard of the Literary and Philoſophical Society of Manchester, which formerly produced ſome very creditable Eſſays. The preſent Obſervations were honoured, the author ſays, by being read at that Society; but how much approbation is implied in the mere act of reading, we do not ſufficiently know the rules of that body to aſcertain.

The motive of the writer is undoubtedly excellent. It is "a wiſh to ſee the Engliſh drama reſcued from its preſent ſtate of inſignificancy, and reſtored to its original conſequence and character." In this wiſh we moſt heartily join; but we fear the malady has gone too far to be cured by precepts, even the moſt excellent. Should a vigorous and lively writer ariſe, who knows and feels the real genius of the drama, and conſtructs either Tragedies or Comedies in a ſtyle as far ſuperior to what has lately produced, as the plays of Shakſpeare were to the attempts that had preceded him, the wretchedneſs of our preſent pieces will then be felt; and authors muſt be compelled to write with more care and thought than lately they have written, or relinquiſh the ſtage entirely to the new candidate. Nothing leſs than this can ever recover a theatre, ſo debaſed as to liſten to upwards of fifty-four repetitions of a drama ſo wretched in plot, moral, and attempts at wit, that fifty years ago a reſpectable booth at Bartholomew fair would have rejected it with contempt.

Mr. Green's obſervations are ſenſible and moral, but of no great vigour; and of no tendency to the point above mentioned. For this we want example. It was Corneille who formed the Tragedy of France, and Moliere the Comedy; Shakſpeare and Jonſon, ſupported by Beaumont, Fletcher, and Maſſinger, eſtabliſhed our own. Till ſuch a renovation ſhall take place, from a ſimilar cauſe, good ſenſe muſt groan, morality bluſh, and probability go mad, if they attempt to enter the Britiſh Theatres, except when a few eſtabliſhed old plays are performed.

ART.

ART. 40. *Women; their Condition and Influence in Society. By Joſ. Alex. Segur. Tranſlated from the French. Three Volumes.* 12mo. 12s. Longman and Rees. 1803.

Theſe volumes exhibit entertaining anecdotes of the more diſtinguiſhed female characters of France, from the earlieſt period of French Hiſtory to the preſent period. The firſt volume contains general remarks and anecdotes of the ſex; and all will afford a reaſonable ſhare of amuſement. Some of the anecdotes are new, and related with a conſiderable degree of vivacity and intereſt.

ART. 41. *A Dictionary of the Wonders of Nature. Tranſlated principally from the Works of A. S. S. Delaſond, Profeſſor of Phyſic at Bourges. With conſiderable Additions from original Manuſcripts; including every important Phenomenon in Nature, philoſophically and phyſically explained. Forming the moſt curious Collection of the Wonders of Nature ever publiſhed. The Whole alphabetically arranged; together with a complete Index.* 12mo. 428 pp. 5s. Hurſt, &c. 1803.

They who wiſh to praiſe this little book may ſay of it, with great truth, that it contains many remarkable facts; but a ſhort account cannot be given of it without ſaying, that its deficiencies are much more numerous and extraordinary than its collections. The contents are arranged under about ſixty heads, moſt arbitrarily choſen out of thouſands that might, with equal reaſon, have been introduced; and even on the topics that are ſelected, multitudes of inſtances might eaſily have been added, from the moſt common books, ſuch as Payne's Geographical Extracts, &c. The book contains, however, ſome inſtances not common, and is undoubtedly entertaining. As to the philoſophical and phyſical explanations mentioned in the title-page, their abſence would be much more than compenſated by the introduction of a few more facts; and they might indeed be ſpared without any ſubſtitution. We have often wiſhed for ſomething of the Dictionary form which ſhould contain mere facts, of art as well as nature*; ſuch as lengths of bridges, heights of columns, dimenſions of buildings, heights of mountains, circumferences of lakes, &c. &c. digeſted into mere tables, in the moſt conciſe form that could be contrived, but founded on good authorities. Such a work is ſtill a deſideratum, or but very imperfectly ſupplied.

ART. 42. *Preludes to Knowledge, or amuſing and inſtructing Converſations in Hiſtory, Aſtronomy, Geography, Optics, and the Diviſion of Time in different Countries; interſperſed with Stories, moral and entertaining. By Elizabeth Somerville, Author of Jones Manners and his Dog Bluff.* 12mo. 2s. Jones. 1803.

This is a very pleaſing and very proper book for children of about ten or twelve years of age, in which amuſement is judiciouſly blended with inſtruction.

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* Some materials of this kind may be found in a common book, "the Tablet of Memory."

ART.

ART. 43. *The Wanderer, or a Collection of Original Tales and Plays, founded upon Facts, illustrating the Virtues and Vices of the present Age. In which are introduced, the Oriental Travels of a learned Mahometan of the last Century. Interspersed with original Poetry. By Charles Fothergill, Esq. Two Volumes.* 12mo. 10s. Wallis. 1803.

Whether these Tales are founded on facts or not, we pretend not to determine; but we think this very questionable. The Tales have merit and interest; but that of Abdallah, the learned Mahometan, is drawn with somewhat too much warmth of imagination. Of the poetry, which is original, we are not able to speak with much praise; but many delightful extracts are introduced from our best poets.

ART. 44. *An Appeal, addressed to the calm Reflection of the Authors of the Critical Review, on 1. Abusive Language; 2. Ambiguity and Embarrassment; 3. Espionage and Detraction; 4. The Jennerian Discovery; with Letters to the Authors of the Monthly Review and British Critic. By John Coakley Lettsom, M. D. &c.* 8vo. 50 pp. 2s. Nicholls. 1803.

As on the occasion of Dr. Lettsom's former vindication of himself, we declared our * opinion that it was "sufficient and satisfactory," we have nothing to say of the present, but that it appears to us superfluous. He deserved, we think, a very different treatment from that which he has experienced; and we are far from being disposed to defend or palliate the conduct of which he complains, and which, no doubt, the public severely condemns.

ART. 45. *Journal of a short Excursion among the Swiss Landscapes, made in the Summer of the Year Ninety-four.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Murray. 1803.

This little volume appears to be printed from the common-place book of a traveller who chose to make the tour, which is here described on foot. It will be a useful manual to whoever shall again travel through this once charming and happy region in the same manner. Some sensible and judicious observations are interspersed; but we question whether, on the whole, it will repay the expence of publication.

ART. 46. *The Last Days of a Person who had been One of Thomas Paine's Disciples; and who departed this Life on Thursday, Feb. 11, 1802. By William Wait, A. B. Third Edition.* 12mo. 14 pp. 3d. Lansdown, &c. Bristol; Hurst, London. 1803.

We had begun to hope that the name, as well as the doctrines, of the profligate impostor mentioned in the title-page, were passing from general contempt into perpetual oblivion. Mr. B. one of his disciples, said to have been "possessed of an intelligent mind," (which is

* Vol. xx. p. 690.

question-

queſtionable) died in February, 1802; being previouſly tormented with all thoſe horrors which his maſter's leſſons are calculated to produce. He was brought, however, (as we here learn) to a Chriſtian mind. But though we give Mr. Wait the credit of zeal in labouring for this unhappy man's converſion; yet we find, at pp. 6, 7, and other paſſages, reaſon for ſaying, that he is not exactly ſuch a ſpiritual inſtructor as we ſhould recommend in the circumſtances here deſcribed.

ART. 47. *The Farmer and Gardener's Directory; containing the moſt approved Rules and Directions for foretelling the Changes which take Place in the Weather; with Obſervations on the Barometer, Thermometer, Hygrometer, and Rain-Guage.* 12mo. 48 pp. 1s. Stevenſon and Matchett, Norwich; Scatcherd, &c. London. 1803.

A part of the firſt period in this book preſents to us ſomething *new*. "It is generally allowed, that animals have their organized fluids and ſolids better conſolidated—than man." Among the ſymptoms of changes in the weather, we find nothing new; nothing more than our grandfathers have handed down to us, from the generations which preceded them. The Obſervations upon the Barometer, &c. are of courſe more modern, and may be found in moſt of the books recently publiſhed upon thoſe ſubjects.

ART. 48. *An Account of Baptiſms, Burials, and Deaths, by Small-Pox, within the Pariſh of Boſton, in the County of Lincoln; and of the Population of the ſaid Pariſh, from A. D.* 1749, *to* 1802, *inclusive; being* 54 *Years. With the Reſult, and Computations. Deſigned to attract the Attention of the Pariſhioners, and of the Public, to Cow-Pock Inoculation. By Samuel Partridge, M. A. Vicar.* 12mo. 8pp. 2d. Kelſey, Boſton. 1803.

At p. 7 of our preſent volume, we noticed with due reſpect, "The Report on the Cow-Pock Inoculation, from the Practice at the Vaccine Pock Inſtitution, London, during the Years 1800, 1801, and 1802." By extracting this *Account*, and printing it in a cheap form, the author of it has endeavoured to render an uſeful ſervice to his own pariſh, and to the public. We ſhall briefly ſtate the *ſubſtance* of the *Reſult*, and of the *Computations*. From the former it appears, that very nearly *one twelfth part* of all the deaths in Boſton, within 54 years, have been occaſioned by the Small-Pox; and from the latter, that it is probable there have died by the ſame diſorder, in the United Kingdom, within the ſame period, *one million, ſeven hundred and ſixty-two thouſand, one hundred and thirty-five*; or, *thirty-two thouſand, ſix hundred and thirty two*, annually; and in all Europe, *twenty-two millions, twenty-ſix thouſand, ſix hundred and ninety-nine*; or, *four hundred and ſeven thouſand, nine hundred and one*, annually. The *data*, on which theſe Computations are founded, ſeem to be free from exaggeration; and ſurely, the whole is ſufficient to awaken the moſt inattentive perſons to a ſerious conſideration of the importance of VACCINE INOCULATION.

ART. 49. *Bible Stories. Memorable Acts of the ancient Patriarchs, Judges, and Kings; extracted from the original Hiſtorians. By William Scolfield. A new Edition. Two Volumes.* 18mo. 4s. Phillips. 1803.

In a very valuable work, the Guardian of Education (ſee our laſt, p. 451) we find theſe volumes ſtrongly reprehended as of inſidious deſign*; nor will we undertake their defence againſt authority ſo reſpectable. Yet we will confeſs that, without this warning, we ſhould have blamed the author for ill judgment rather than for ill intention. Even after the warning, we pauſe; and it requires all our recollection of the baſely diſguiſed artifices of irreligion, to perſuade us to ſuſpect a plot ſo deeply covered. The author ſhows a fooliſh wiſh to conceal the higher truths of Chriſtianity from young minds; but he profeſſes a veneration for them; he gives an apparent ſanction to the deſign of teaching them afterwards; he ſpeaks of the narratives as if he believed them; and declares it to ſtrike his mind as *having the nature of ſacrilege* to change the phraſeology of the Bible. The part which carries the moſt proof with it, is cited at large in the critique alluded to (p. 254) but from the edition of Mr. Scolfield's book, *which was ſent to us*, that whole paſſage is expunged. The intention of the compiler muſt, therefore, be judged elſewhere. To our apprehenſion, the book can hardly be read without leading the child to aſk moſt of the primary queſtions which a Chriſtian parent would wiſh to teach. But that it is extremely defective, and culpably ſo, in the inſtruction it directly conveys, we moſt readily concede. As there are many much better books, for teaching ſuch things as children ought to learn, this may certainly be diſpenſed with.

PATRIOTIC PAPERS, &c.

(Continued from pp. 217 and 448.)

HAZARD, *Bath.*

82†. The New French Catechiſm, between an Engliſh Volunteer and a French Priſoner. Halfpenny.

83. The Ploughman's Ditty. Being an Anſwer to that fooliſh Queſtion, *What have the* POOR *to loſe?* To the tune of *He that has the beſt Wife.* A Song of nine verſes.

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* *Guardian of Education*, vol. i. p. 244.

† We reckon the three tracts noticed at p. 448, as No. 79, 80, and 81, though not ſo diſtinguiſhed in that place.

84. Will Chip's True Rights of Man, in Oppoſition to the New Rights of Man. By a Journeyman Carpenter. A Song of twelve verſes.

☞ We have great reaſon to believe, that theſe three came from the ſame pen which produced the excellent Song entitled "a King or a Conſul," noticed at No. 56 of our firſt liſt, and known to almoſt every reader.

FOREIGN CATALOGUE.

FRANCE.

ART. 51. *La Gaſtronomie* ou *l'Homme des Champs à table*; *pour ſervir de ſuite à* l'Homme des Champs, par J. Delille; ſeconde édition, revue et augmentée avec figures. Paris.

The Advertiſement which is prefixed to this edition ſeems to give a juſt idea of the nature of the work. "Il eſt bien difficile," ſays the author, "de ne pas faire des mécontens, quand on entreprend de donner à diner au public, quelques perſonnes ont trouvé mon repas trop long, et quelques autres l'ont trouvé trop court. J'ai ſongé ſeulement à contenter ces dernieres; car les premières étant maîtreſſes de s'arrêter au premier ſervice et même de n'en pas tâter du tout, j'ai donc augmenté mon diner de pluſieurs plats nouveaux que j'ai tâché d'accommoder de mon mieux; j'ai conſulté les meilleurs cuiſiniers, les artiſtes les plus diſtingués; j'ai diné chez *Véri*, chez *Roſe*, chez *les frères Provençaux* et autres, avec des amateurs des beaux eſprits qui m'ont aidé de leurs lumières et avec qui je me ſuis énivré pour me perfectionner dans mon art. Du reſte, j'ai lieu de me féliciter de ce qu'un grand nombre de perſonnes a bien voulu s'aſſeoir à ma table et y prendre quelque plaiſir; je vois avec ſatisfaction que ſi on peut accuſer la foibleſſe de mon talent, on a du moins une très grande eſtime pour la matière que j'ai traitée."

This poem is divided into four Cantos; in the firſt of which, is deſcribed the kitchen of the ancients; the Greeks, the Romans are not forgotten; the luxury of Lucullus; the diſcoveries of Apicius; the prodigality of Julius Cæſar and of Vitellius; the ſumptuous repaſts given by Caligula to his horſe; the appetite of Geta, &c. In the three other Cantos, the poet returns to the modern kitchen; but he has not recourſe to the chemical proceſſes, and to the diſguiſed viande

ands of the Apicii of our days. He complains likewiſe, that dinners have taken the place of ſupper.

" L'eſtomac en gémit par un abus coupable,
Les ſoupers ſont proſcrits : on deſerte la table,
On ne vit qu'à demi. Laiſſez ce *procédé*
A celui qui, réduit au *tiers conſolidé*,
Couché ſur le grand livre en triſtes caractères,
Se ſoumet par prudence à des jeunes auſtères. . . .
Qu'à midi tous les jours une cloche argentine
Vous appelle au banquet que Comus vous deſtine. . . .
Qu'entends-je! tout Paris contre moi ſoulevé
Me renvoie au village ou je fus élevé. . . .
Ah! j'y ſaurai braver un dédain qui m'honore ;
J'y vole, et j'ai diné quand Paris dort encore."

Eſpr. de Journ.

ART. 52. *La Pitié, poëme en quatre chants, par* Jacques Delille. 1 vol. avec figures. Paris.

In the firſt Canto, the author deſcribes Pity as exerciſed towards animals, towards ſervants, towards our relations, friends, and all thoſe who, by their ſituations and misfortunes, have a claim on ſenſible ſouls. The ſecond Canto treats of the public ſupplies granted by government to eſtabliſhments of charity, beneficence, and juſtice. The third ſhows what Pity may do, in order to render more tolerable the ſituation of individuals in the ſtorms of a revolution. The ſervices rendered by Pity, in the times of exile and proſcription, form the ſubject of the fourth Canto.

In the following extract, taken from the ſecond Canto, the author implores the humanity and aſſiſtance of governments ; and calls upon Pity, in favour of thoſe who are, either by misfortune, or by the commiſſion of crimes, confined in priſons.

" Je chante l'homme en proie à des maux plus cruels,
Qui, loin de ſes amis et des toits paternels,
Perdant de ſes foyers la douceur domeſtique
Attend ou la juſtice ou la pitié publique.
Viens donc, ô ma déeſſe, entrons dans ce ſéjour,
Ou l'homme, dans les fers, languit privé du jour,
Hélas! tandis qu'auprès de leurs jeunes compagnes,
Dans les riches cités, dans les vertes campagnes,
Ses amis d'autrefois amuſent leurs loiſirs,
Lorſque, donnant à tous le ſignal des plaiſirs,
L'airain retentiſſant, et l'aiguille muette
Du temps qui la conduit, vagabonde interprète,
Marquent au laboureur la fin de ſes travaux,
Aux mineurs haraſſés une tréve à leurs maux ;
Appellent chaque ſoir la jeuneſſe folâtre
Aux délices du bal, aux pompes du théâtre
Ou d'un moment plus cher annonçant leretour
De l'heure fortunée, avertiſſent l'amour ;

Le

Le temps par la douleur lui meſure les heures.
Reduit, pour ſeul plaiſir, dans ces noires demeures,
A lire quelques mots, où l'autre avant lui,
Sur ces terribles murs ont tracé leur ennui;
Il eſt ſeul, dans un long et lugubre ſilence
Pour lui le jour s'achève et le jour recommence;
Pour lui, plus de beaux jours, de ruiſſeaux, de gazon,
Cette voute eſt ſon ciel, ces murs ſon horizon.
Son regard élevé vers le flambeau céleſte,
Vient mourir dans la nuit de ſon cachot funeſte;
Rien n'égaye à ſes yeux ſa morne obſcurité;
Ou ſi par des barreaux, avares de clarté,
Un foible jour ſe gliſſe dans ces antres funèbres,
Il redouble par lui les horreurs des ténèbres;
Et le cœur conſumé d'un regret ſans eſpoir,
Il cherche la lumière, et gémit de la voir. . . ."

Hoſpitals are likewiſe the object of this Canto. The author complains, with reaſon, of the negligence with which thoſe who ſeek an alleviation to their complaints in them are often treated.

" Mais de ces ſaints abris, ouvrage des vieux temps,
Souvent la negligence, ou l'infame avarice
A fait de tous les maux, l'épouvantable hoſpice.
Là ſont amoncelés, dans des murs dévorans,
Les vivans ſur les morts, les morts ſur les mourans;
Là d'impures vapeurs la vie environnée,
Par un air corrompu languit empoiſonnée.
Là le long de ces lits où gemit le malheur,
Victimes des ſecours plus que la douleur,
L'ignorance en courant fait ſa ronde homicide,
L'indifférence obſerve, et le haſard décide.
Mais la *pitié* revient achever ces travaux,
Sépare les douleurs et diſtingue les maux,
Les recommande à l'art que la bonté ſeconde,
Tantôt les délivant d'une vapeur immonde,
Ouvre ces longs canaux, ces frais ventilateurs,
De l'air renouvelé puiſſans reparateurs.
Par elle un ordre heureux conduit rei le zèle
La propreté ſoigneuſe y prénde avec elle,
La vie eſt à l'abri du ſouffle de la mort;
Grace à ſes ſoins pieux, ſans terreur, ſans remord,
L'agonie en ſes bras plus doucement s'achève;
L'heureux convaleſcent ſur ſon lit ſe relève,
Et revient échappé des horreurs du trépas,
D'un pied tremblant encor former ſes premiers pas."

The crimes of the Revolution are deſcribed in the third and fourth Cantos, in verſes equally harmonious and affecting.

" A peine la diſcorde dans ſes noirs ſacrifices,
Du ſang de l'innocent a gouté les prémices,

Sa

Sa terrible moiſſon ſe pourſuit en tout lieu;
Les temples des beaux arts, les démeures de Dieu,
Les lieux ou nous prions les préſences céleſtes,
Des proſcrits entaſſés ſont les dépôts funeſtes;
Tous les bras ſont vendus, tous les cœurs ſont cruels,
Image de ces dieux, la terreur des mortels
Dont nul n'oſe aborder l'autel impitoyable,
Que dégoutant du ſang de quelque miſérable.
L'idole à qui la France a confié ſon ſort,
N'accepte que du ſang, ne ſourit qu'à la mort,
Femme, enfant ſont voués à ſon culte terrible,
L'innocente beauté pare ſa pompe horrible:
La hache eſt ſans repos, la crainte ſans eſpoir;
Le matin dit les noms des victimes du ſoir;
L'effroi veille au milieu des familles tremblantes,
Les jours ſont inquiets et les nuits ménaçantes:
Imprudent, jadis fier de ton nom, de ton or,
Hâte-toi d'enfouir tes titres, ton tréſor!
Tout ce qui fut heureux démeure ſans excuſe,
L'opulence dénonce, et la naiſſance accuſe.
Pour racheter tes jours, en vain ton or eſt prêt;
Le fiſc inexorable a dicté ton arrêt.
L'avidité peut vendre une paix paſſagère;
Mais elle veut ſa proie et ſa proie toute entière.
Ne parle plus d'amis, de devoirs, de liens,
Plus d'amis, de parens et de concitoyens;
Le fils épouvanté craint l'abord de ſon père,
Le frère ſe detourne à l'aſpect de ſon frère,
L'amour même eſt timide, et dans ſon abandon
La nature eſt ſans voix ſous des lois ſans pardon."

Magaſ. Encyclop.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

On looking back to the place where we noticed the *Miſſionary Voyage*, we perceived that the ſhip was *the Duff*, and not *the Bounty*. In that Voyage it was ſtated, that thoſe Miſſionaries pretended to have immediate and direct Revelations from Heaven. Is not that *fanaticiſm*, or worſe? And to prove the charge more fully; in the very act of denying it, a Correſpondent writes, in the very ſpirit of fanaticiſm, a rancorous abuſe of the Church of England. Of ſuch perſons we ſhall only ſay, "they know what they do," not forgetting to add a prayer for their forgiveneſs.

Mr. Pratt, in a Letter of ſome length, exculpates himſelf for having too haſtily, on the report of a newſpaper, given unqualified praiſe to Ritſon's fooliſh and impious book on *Animal Food*;

Food; and denies having any general knowledge of the principles or writings of that unfortunate man. He alſo handſomely diſavows any intention of ſhowing diſreſpect to the Clergy. To the other parts of his Letter it ſeems unneceſſary to reply.

Cler. Lond. Vet. who this time writes to us chiefly about *Veterinary* matters, is ſtrangely miſtaken in ſuppoſing that we conceived the exiſtence of the *membrana nictitans* in horſes to be a new diſcovery. Even in a book ſo old as Derham's Phyſico-theology, it is mentioned as belonging to moſt animals. But as common farriers, and writers on farriery, have often been ignorant of it, there could be no ſtronger illuſtration of the uſe and neceſſity of a Veterinary College. The other ſubject mentioned by him ſhall have a due and ſpeedy attention.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Books expected ſoon from the *Clarendon Preſs* are, 1. Profeſſor *White's* fourth and laſt volume of the *Philoxenian Verſion* of the New Teſtament. 2. "Tractatus varii ad Geometriam pertinentes," by *Biſhop Horſley*. 3. The Nicomachean Ethics of Ariſtotle, by *Wilkinſon*.

We are informed by a correſpondent, that *Dr. Parr*, having obtained the aid of a friend in tranſcribing his *Sermon* on the late Faſt, has ſent it to preſs, and we may hope to ſee it publiſhed early in January.

Part I. of the ſecond volume of the *Modern Hiſtory of Hindoſtan*, by *Mr. Maurice*, will be publiſhed early in December.

Two numiſmatic works are expected, from *Mr. Ruding*, and *Mr. Combe* of the Britiſh Muſeum.

Another intereſting publication on the ſubject of Troy is promiſed, by a recent traveller.

A new volume of *Mr. Nichols's Hiſtory of Leiceſterſhire* will very ſoon appear.

Mr. Blair, Surgeon, is preparing for immediate publication a ſmall volume, to be entitled *the Soldier's Friend:* containing familiar inſtructions, relative to health, for volunteers, yeomanry, and military men in general.

The firſt Part of the learned work of *Mr. E. Davies*, Curate of Olveſton, on *the Introduction of Writing* into the Weſt of Europe, is now very ſpeedily to appear.

☞ Since we reviewed the Exerciſes of the New College at Calcutta (p. 241 of our preſent volume) we have learned that a few copies have been imported for ſale, by *Mr. Debrett*, Piccadilly.